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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW

VOL. LXIII, No. 1 JANUARY 1951

# Health and Welfare of Seafarers: An International Problem

by

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*A brief account of the work done by the I.L.O. for the promotion of seafarers' health and welfare was included in the recent survey of thirty years of I.L.O. maritime activity given in these pages.*[1] *For the following more detailed discussion of the special needs of seafarers in this respect, the Office is indebted to an acknowledged authority on the subject. In the course of his article, Dr. Evang draws on Norwegian experience to illustrate what can be done in practice to meet such needs and makes suggestions for further international action.*

## INTRODUCTION

IN earlier times, dietary diseases were the dominant health problem at sea. Once beri-beri and scurvy had been overcome, venereal disease and alcoholism were generally thought of as constituting the most serious problems, but little by little it has become apparent that they are by no means the only ones. From almost every point of view—social,

[1] See *International Labour Review*, Vol. LXII, No. 5, November 1950: "The Joint Maritime Commission and the Maritime Work of the I.L.O.", pp. 356-357.

economic and medical—the seafarer occupies a peculiar position. It is true that efforts have been made, both nationally and internationally, to improve the situation by regulating conditions of work, providing increased protection against accidents, improving crew accommodation and raising health standards. Between the two wars, extensive work was done in these fields, not least by the International Labour Organisation ; and the second world war was particularly instrumental in bringing forth attempts at new solutions to these problems.[1]

It is not the purpose of this article to discuss the many important Conventions, Recommendations and resolutions adopted by the International Labour Conference on maritime questions. I would wish rather to touch on certain aspects of seafarers' conditions which have been less frequently discussed and to give a few examples of how one country has attempted to solve some of the problems. Finally, my aim is to discuss the question whether the time has not come for international co-operation in setting up an international health and social service for seafarers throughout the world. The step which was recently taken by the International Labour Organisation and World Health Organisation (W.H.O.) in establishing a joint committee on hygiene of seafarers would seem to reflect a growing realisation that the subject is now ripe for a greater measure of international action.[2]

It will be readily appreciated that the health and social conditions of the seafarer are a matter of international importance. Seafarers constitute a vast current of potential living contacts, moving at varying speeds from port to port. Even the smallest coastal town or fishing village is visited from time to time by seafarers ; some may be put ashore sick, some may have deserted their ship ; and when they go they may leave behind seeds of infection, physical or mental, or children to

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLIII, No. 4, April 1941, pp. 401-414 : " Organisation for Seamen's Welfare in Great Britain " ; Vol. XLVI, No. 1, July 1942, pp. 49-52 : " Organisation for Seamen's Welfare in Canada "; Vol. XLIX, No. 1, January 1944, pp. 52-56 : " Organisation for the Welfare of Norwegian Seamen " ; Vol. L, No. 3, September 1944, pp. 316-334 : " Developments in Welfare Work for British Seamen " ; Vol. LVIII, No. 5, November 1948, pp. 625-636 : " Seafarers' Welfare : Some Post-War Developments ".

[2] For an account of the first session of this committee, of which Dr. Evang is chairman, see INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *Industry and Labour*, Vol. III, No. 2, 15 January 1950, pp. 46-47.

be brought up. The time has come to ask whether this stream of living people, which from a health and social point of view is capable of being brought under control, is at present living under such conditions and receiving such care that reasonable protection is afforded both to the seafarers and to the millions with whom they come directly or indirectly into contact. I think it will be agreed that so far this protection has been given in much too hit-and-miss a fashion. Whether looked at from the national or from the international angle, the carrying of tuberculosis, smallpox and venereal disease—to mention only three important diseases to which seafarers are frequently subject—is in itself sufficiently serious to justify the modest outlay that would be necessary from each country as a contribution towards a satisfactory international health service for all seafarers.

From the international point of view, there is another aspect which is frequently overlooked. Seafarers occupy a key position in the vital supply channels between countries. This is particularly apparent during economic crises or during times of war, when a breakdown or a decline in the exchange of goods between countries may be of decisive importance. It is therefore necessary that seafarers as a class should be responsible, alert and informed, with high social and economic standards, and not readily to be led astray by demagogues. It is very easy for a seafarer to become denationalised, and yet not to become fully and truly internationalised. Having lost his roots in his own country without having an opportunity of establishing fresh ones in any other country, he feels himself neglected by everybody. Both the first and the second world wars produced examples of how this natural tendency towards denationalisation and personal bitterness could be exploited during a critical period.

Few things are more apt to create bitterness towards one's surroundings and the community than lack of proper care during illness or in other time of need. Sickness or injury usually hits a man unexpectedly without giving him a chance of making economic or other preparations to meet it. Any serious illness creates a feeling of impotence and dependence on others. If proper care is not given and if it appears that nobody feels any responsibility for such care, or if the illness means a prolonged break in working activity, the natural

consequence in many cases will be lasting bitterness. The risk is particularly marked in seafaring because the special characteristics of this occupation render it more difficult than on land to make proper and reliable arrangements for medical care. The second world war brought increasing appreciation of the fact that seafarers form a section of the community whose social and health conditions must be given at least as much consideration as those of people on land. But much remains to be done.

## Special Health Problems of Seafarers

Public health experts will know that it is not sufficient to apply the same rules and provide the same facilities for seafarers as for the population ashore. In many ways seafarers as a group are exposed to special risks of disease. This is obvious from the fact that the three basic factors in environmental hygiene—living accommodation, conditions of work, and diet—are essentially different at sea. It was a long time before this fact was properly appreciated, and many far-reaching national and international measures have been needed to bring about tolerably satisfactory conditions as regards these three fundamental factors. There are still a number of problems to be solved before the situation is completely satisfactory from a hygienic point of view, and it is in this field in particular that the continued work of the I.L.O. may be expected to produce useful results.

As to the direct sickness risk, it is a commonplace that the seafarer, in his voyages from country to country, is exposed to varying conditions from the Arctic to the Equator. Everyone with experience knows that sudden climatic changes can in themselves impose a great strain, but the seafarer is at a further disadvantage in that he does not live in an unchanging environment exposed to much the same diseases as he is himself; every port at which he touches, every new member of the crew who is signed on, represents a new possibility of infection. Abrupt climatic changes and the special conditions of accommodation and feeding on board also tend to reduce his resistance to certain diseases. In spite of the existence of these special dangers, we have not so far arrived

at any internationally accepted rules for the medical examination of seafarers on engagement or for their vaccination when voyaging from port to port.

The risk of employment injury is also higher among the seafaring population than in most shore occupations. This is partly because loading and unloading must very often be done at high speed under changing conditions and sometimes by primitive methods. Moreover, seafarers are often faced with unexpected situations, such as collisions, shipwreck, etc., forcing them without preparation to use tools and equipment with which they are not familiar. The rapid labour turnover in the occupation also prevents crews from becoming permanent trained teams, each member of which knows his colleagues' ways and abilities.

It is also a regrettable fact, which is seldom openly mentioned though known to all with experience, that the medical and hospital treatment provided for seafarers in certain ports often falls far short of the best professional standards. Some of the reasons for this are excusable. Language differences, for instance, make it very difficult for doctor and patient to understand each other, and the busy private practitioner of a port cannot always be blamed for not finding time to overcome this difficulty by recourse to an interpreter. Moreover, the departure of the ship is usually urgent, since any delay has serious economic consequences. The patient will probably be reluctant to be left behind and the doctor may not be able, even with the best medical means, to arrive at a final diagnosis within the short time available. Hence the treatment is often superficial; or the doctor takes a chance and lets the man leave with his ship unless it is quite obvious that he requires immediate treatment or isolation. These factors, which are inherent in the nature of the occupation, cannot be easily eliminated, but something might be done by good organisation.

There is another matter, also rarely voiced in public, but which should be easier to put right. A number of the doctors working in various ports and treating foreign seafarers are incompetent. This may seem a rash assertion, especially coming from a medical man, and I would not have dared to make it if I had not personally had an opportunity during five years of the second world war to see at first hand cases

in several ports throughout the world of what from the medical point of view can only be described as faulty treatment. Sometimes the cause was apparently a lack of medical judgment or of the necessary facilities for proper diagnosis. In other cases, however, it was difficult to avoid the conclusion that the purely commercial motive had been given too much play, so that the seafarer or the person responsible for paying on his behalf was being subjected to direct economic exploitation without receiving the equivalent medical value. It is true that, in the larger ports at least, the consuls of certain countries have tried to establish contacts with the medical profession and can thus refer the master of a ship to a good doctor. Very often, however, the consuls will have no medical knowledge and will have difficulty in judging the medical standards of a physician or a hospital. It cannot be said that this system has always proved satisfactory, even in ports where there are permanent consulates.

It would be possible to cite many shocking examples of what seafarers have gone through as a result of incorrect treatment, and examples of extortion from the person responsible for payment. One instance must suffice as an illustration. A ship arrived in a large port and was visited by the doctor who normally treated seafarers of the nationality in question. Nobody on board had felt ill when the doctor arrived, but before he left he had made appointments with three men to remove their appendix and with six others to be X-rayed. It so happened that the doctor, in addition to being a surgeon, ran an X-ray institute. Next morning, he removed the three appendices and took the six X-rays. In due course, the ship received a fat bill, for which, in this particular instance, the owner was responsible. But whether it be the owner or the individual patient who is liable to pay the bill, there can be no justification for such extortion by a medical man. Still more shocking are the instances in which seafarers suffering from contagious tuberculosis are sent back to their ships after superficial examination, or where completely inadequate treatment is given for syphilis, or where a doubtful case of cancer is not kept back for proper examination.

Do not misunderstand me. I am not suggesting that all physicians practising privately in ports all over the world, and all hospitals to which seafarers are admitted, are of a low

medical standard or tainted by commercial motives. Fortunately, this is not the case, and certain countries have already taken action to try and improve such conditions where they exist. Many port doctors are able and have a high ethical standard, and many hospitals are efficiently run. Nevertheless, my experience is that the exceptions are still so frequent that a cleaning up of these conditions is necessary.

One point that must not be overlooked in this connection is that medical and hygiene standards differ from country to country, as do doctors' methods and their views on treatment, medicines, etc. It would be utopian at present to expect the medical standards in all ports to be up to the level of the most advanced countries; nor should the seafarer expect every physician to write him a prescription for the same cough mixture as he usually has at home. In my opinion, however, international co-operation on health questions has now reached a stage where a certain degree of international regulation in this field is both necessary and possible.

## Mental Hygiene

So far, we have had in mind mainly physical illnesses, but just as important and interesting problems arise in connection with the mental health of seafarers. Reference is frequently made to the seafarer's irregular and often long absences from his country, his family and his loved ones, and the importance of this cannot be exaggerated. Everyone has a fundamental need for human roots and contacts which should, to some extent at least, be stable and, as far as possible, permanent. For shorter or longer periods the seafarer is cut off from such contacts, and time and again he has to readjust himself when he comes back to a sweetheart or wife who, like himself, has in the interval been subject to new and different impressions. Or he may be returning to children who have changed since he last saw them and on whose development he feels he has too little influence. Neither in his home nor in his work does he have a fixed, unchanging environment. Sooner or later there are changes in the crew, so that his friendships on board are rarely other than temporary, with single individuals or with small groups. Nor must it be forgotten that a seafarer

at work usually lives in an artificial, wholly masculine environment which has no exact counterpart in any other occupation. Anyone not wilfully ignoring the difficulties knows that this involves a heavy strain on the seafarer's emotions and instincts. Seafaring as an occupation does not provide the normal opportunities for the all-round healthy expression of the basic instincts in sex life. In fact, there is little satisfactory opportunity for developing the whole social side of human instincts, and the cats, dogs, parrots, etc., which a seafarer often keeps as pets are but a poor substitute as objects for love and protection.

A reference must also made again to the question of denationalisation. I do not wish to be misunderstood as glorifying nationalism as such. Narrow nationalism is a fetter, and there have been so many crimes against the individual and against nations in the name of nationalism that constructive internationalism has become a *sine qua non* for humanity. The individual needs a link with some form of culture and with certain spiritual values, which up to the present have been most easily accessible through his own nation. That does not mean that seafaring does not provide an opportunity for constructive international work in the field of health and welfare which could supplement the existing national ties.

One of the most important problems in the sphere of mental hygiene is alcoholism. There are those who even consider it *the* problem of seafarers, but in my view this is an exaggeration. On the average, seafarers probably drink far less than large groups of the population on land, simply because they normally drink little or nothing while working at sea. It is during their visits ashore that alcohol plays too large a part for many.

The fundamental point is that seafarers, like most other persons, drink not for the sake of drinking but for other reasons. " Everybody says Jeppe drinks, but nobody asks why Jeppe drinks ", wrote the famous Norwegian-Danish playwright Ludvig Holberg. Because of the characteristics of his occupation, the seafarer visiting a foreign port is in a particularly unfavourable and mentally unbalanced situation. As has just been mentioned, he has been deprived of the opportunity to live a normal sex life and he has not been able to find an outlet for his natural desire to love and protect. He has lacked

that access to cultural values on which others can easily draw. When he comes ashore after the more or less complete spiritual barrenness and isolation on board ship, he has of necessity —consciously or unconsciously—acquired an overwhelming need for human contacts in the widest sense and for social, cultural and sexual satisfaction in the narrower sense. Conditions, however, are unfavourable for him : he may not know the language ; the port is strange ; people and general conditions are foreign to him. This often forces him to seek a short cut, and alcohol often seems a suitable means. Again, he may need to overcome certain complexes and dull his critical faculties so as to obtain some satisfaction from the substitutes available in a foreign port. He may have been received at his own consulate in a way which gives him the impression that no one is interested in him. Drink is then an easy comforter, even if, in the long run, it provides no real solution. Drinking among seafarers is therefore not a matter for sermonising or self-righteous condemnation. It is first and foremost a question of discovering how far their needs can be satisfactorily met without obliging them to poison themselves in order to be able to put up with substitutes. It must be done in such a way that the seafarer will not have to undergo spiritual degradation or even a split in his emotional life, as he so often does at present. It is admittedly difficult to reach this goal, but much could certainly be done.

The problems discussed above are already familiar and have been tackled both nationally and internationally. There is no need to dwell here on the efforts made by the International Labour Organisation in many of its Conventions and Recommendations dealing with various aspects of the welfare of seafarers. These certainly provide a great amount of guidance, but experience shows that it is not always easy to apply them fully in practice. It may therefore be of interest if I outline broadly what has been attempted in this field in Norway.

## A Contribution towards Practical Solutions

The efforts made in Norway in recent years to build up machinery for safeguarding the welfare and health of seafarers are based partly on the work carried on for many years by

voluntary religious and charitable organisations, by trade unions and shipowners, and partly on experience gained in the second world war. It is not suggested that the methods adopted in Norway will suit all nations or all conditions, nor do we claim to have found final and ideal solutions. This is a field where many different methods must be tried out, and Norwegian experience may provide useful guidance for other countries. The following account deals separately with welfare work and the health service.

### *Welfare Work for Norwegian Seafarers*

#### *Administration and Finance.*

Official action to promote the welfare of seafarers began during the recent war, and the present system is based on an Act of 13 December 1948 which set up a Social Welfare Council and a Social Welfare Fund for the Norwegian merchant marine. The amount of the Fund is fixed at 10 million Norwegian crowns, and the income is derived mainly from fees paid by all Norwegian seafarers liable to sickness insurance. The monthly contribution is 2.40 crowns a head ; the seafarer himself and the shipowner each pay one quarter of the contribution, and the State pays one half.

The activities of the Fund are controlled by the Council, a body composed of eight members appointed by the Government for a term of three years. The writer is the present chairman, and the Chief of the Maritime Division in the Ministry of Commerce is vice-chairman. The other members of the Council are representatives of seamen, ship's officers, shipowners and the Seamen's Church, one member being a woman. The Council has decided that 3 million crowns should be set aside as a reserve fund and 7 million crowns kept available for establishing permanent welfare agencies for seafarers. It has a comparatively free hand, but must submit an annual report to the Storting through the Ministry of Commerce. The executive work is carried out by a Social Welfare Office and local welfare committees, with a permanent staff of officials. The main activities, which are briefly reviewed below, include the operation of hotels, clubs and reading rooms and more general welfare work, in particular, sports and education.

*Operation of Hotels and Clubs.*

A fundamental part of welfare and health work for seafarers must always be the provision of food and accommodation at reasonable prices in ports. Space does not permit me to enlarge on the many and complex problems which arise. Everyone knows that much of the existing boarding house activity in ports is far from satisfactory, from whatever point of view. The Norwegian Welfare Council therefore operates at present seven seamen's hotels or boarding houses of different sizes. Wherever possible, the hotel is situated at some distance from the harbour and run like an ordinary hotel, where a seafarer can enjoy the freedom and get the kind of service which any other traveller would normally expect to receive. Consequently the hotels generally serve beer and wine. They have no set closing time at night or other restrictions. Reading and recreation rooms are installed, and the hotel is used as a starting point for all other welfare activities in the port. The prices charged must be such that the hotels can compete satisfactorily with existing boarding houses; this usually means that the hotels are operated at some loss and need to be subsidised out of the funds available for welfare. Since it is obvious that a single country alone can only satisfy the demand in a few ports, there is room for international co-operation. But this is not so simple a matter as might at first be thought, because it is difficult to combine international hotel operation with the preservation of those distinctive national features which form the chief attraction of these institutions for many seafarers. International management also involves serious administrative difficulties, so that the most practical solution would probably be to combine the operation of each hotel or similar undertaking by one country, or by two closely related countries, with suitable arrangements for reciprocal service for seafarers of other nations.

In ports where it is not possible to set up a hotel or where the number of seafarers is so small that a hotel is scarcely necessary, useful service can be rendered by the provision of clubs and reading rooms without sleeping accommodation. Four such reading rooms and clubs are at present being operated as independent units.

*Local Welfare Committees and Personnel.*

In all ports where there are welfare institutions, it is considered important to have local welfare committees. These are appointed by the Council and include, wherever possible, representatives of the Council, shipowners, seafarers' organisations, the Seamen's Church and the local Norwegian colony. These committees do excellent work and may often be able to raise funds locally, in addition to those placed at their disposal by the Council. Where welfare activity has developed to a sufficient extent, a welfare secretary is appointed as a permanent official of the Council and acts as secretary for the local committee. He is responsible for organising sports, entertainments, sightseeing trips and educational activities and should, when possible, visit Norwegian ships arriving in port. The Council at present employs fourteen welfare secretaries in various ports.

*Sports and Athletic Activities.*

During four years' experience in this field, we have found that sports and athletic activities have come to play a much greater part in welfare than many people at first expected. The practice of sports helps to bring members of crews together and to develop an interest in physical fitness which is reflected in improved health. It has also been found that it provides a useful opening for educational work.

The Welfare Council has set up a central board to develop sports among seafarers. The board sends out to ships programmes for games and gymnastics and organises matches in as many ports as possible, with the assistance of local welfare committees where these exist. Efforts are also made to encourage international games and matches. The board promotes the appointment on each ship of a sports committee consisting of representatives of both officers and ratings. These committees try to secure the participation of every member of the crew in some form of sport, to arrange for training and matches while the ship is in port, to organise physical exercises for everyone on board at least once a day, to arrange for the storing of athletic equipment on board and to make periodical reports on sports activities.

Association football is the sport which has become outstandingly popular in the Norwegian merchant marine, and a system of league matches and local divisions has been worked out. At the outset the provision of equipment caused certain difficulties, but many shipowners have generously helped to provide equipment and in some instances the local welfare offices have built up supplies. During 1949 the Welfare Council received reports on 735 soccer matches played by Norwegian ships' teams in 32 different countries, and the total number is undoubtedly much higher.

One problem which arose at an early stage was that of physical fitness. Seafarers did not always realise that playing soccer could be harmful for those who had not trained and reached a certain standard of physical condition. Efforts were therefore made, through the distribution of printed material, films, short-wave radio broadcasts, etc., to encourage athletic activities on board. The result has been a greatly increased interest in all forms of athletics. During 1949 there were 132 seafarers who took part in jumping championships. At an athletic meeting in New York organised on four Sundays in August 1949 there were 160 participants. In addition to jumping, tug-of-war competitions and the other usual forms of athletics, attention is devoted to rowing and swimming. In the case of swimming, less attention is paid to the competitive aspect than to reaching a certain minimum standard.

Even the best written material cannot take the place of personal instruction in athletics, but this is extremely difficult to organise. One attempt consisted in sending a prominent instructor to ten different ports in Europe and the United States. Gramophone records of instructions were sent in advance, and the instructor's aim was to supplement these and to train persons on board ship to use the records to the fullest advantage.

The general objective is that all persons on board should take part in sports and athletics and that striving after prizes or records for their own sake should be discouraged. Where this has been achieved, sports have proved a levelling factor of great importance in the daily life and work of the crews. In order to provide a certain amount of encouragement, badges are granted for those reaching a certain minimum standard in different forms of athletics, and ship's officers are entrusted

with the task of checking the claims for such badges. Shields and challenge cups to be held by ships' teams have also been provided.

The greatest problem is to find good and conveniently situated sports grounds in the different ports. The local field will very often not be available at the time the seafarers could use it, and it has therefore been found necessary to establish special fields for Norwegian seafarers or to obtain permission to use those belonging to other countries. There are Norwegian sports grounds at present at Rotterdam, San Pedro (California) and Baltimore. Through the generosity of the City of Antwerp, land has been placed at the disposal of Norwegian seafarers free of charge and the field will be completed in the near future. In New York also a field has been given free of charge, and satisfactory working arrangements have been made in Cardiff and Oslo. This is one direction in which there is room for practical international co-operation; the aim should be to have sports grounds available for seafarers in every large port.

*Educational Activities.*

Educational work is perhaps the most difficult and demanding aspect of welfare work for seafarers. As was mentioned earlier, the seafarer is to a great extent cut off from the opportunities for cultural development available to people on shore. It is impossible in foreign ports to make up fully for the lack of the cultural opportunities available at home, but efforts should be made to exploit such possibilities as exist. This can best be done when there is a permanent welfare staff in the port. Experience has shown that seafarers may have visited a certain port regularly for many years without acquiring any knowledge of the life of the country. They therefore greatly appreciate well-organised sightseeing trips combined with information on local conditions. They may also be glad to visit theatres, concerts, cinemas, exhibitions, museums, etc. Some may be interested in local political and social questions and may wish to attend meetings or conferences dealing with such subjects. Great importance should be attached to well-planned evenings of varied entertainment, preferably finishing up with a dance. This again is difficult

to organise without the assistance of a local welfare committee and the local colony of the nationals in question.

If the seafarer is to benefit to any great extent from educational facilities in foreign ports, he must have some knowledge of foreign languages, particularly English. Language instruction therefore occupies a prominent place in educational work for Norwegian seafarers. It has been found that athletic activities ashore form a good starting point for learning a language, since they often call for a knowledge of English or other languages. The teaching of languages has therefore been organised by means of correspondence courses, gramophone records, films and personal instruction. A certain number of university students have been sent out as language teachers, staying on board for periods ranging from four to twelve weeks. Their work has been followed up by the organisation of study circles. It has been found that instruction by gramophone records fails to give a command of the written language, while correspondence courses are difficult to organise because the address of a ship is always changing and members of the crew frequently transfer from one vessel to another.

It has also been found useful to stimulate an interest in hobbies. There are always a certain number of men on board with artistic talents of one kind or another, and these should be cultivated. The organisation of entertainments on board, either by members of the crew or in the form of films, is also of great importance. By arrangement with a Norwegian film company, a monthly edition of the Norwegian weekly news film has been made available for distribution to ships. Admittedly, there are still practical difficulties in transmitting the film from country to country, and consequently many ships have preferred to rent or borrow foreign films at various ports. More and more ships now carry film projectors, and there are great possibilities for international co-operation in this field.

Any educational work is meaningless without books. It is therefore of fundamental importance for every ship to have a fairly representative library which can be changed from time to time. More and more Norwegian shipowners are now providing libraries for their ships, and in addition the Welfare Council has received gifts of a large number of volumes, which are distributed to individual ships or placed as permanent libraries in seamen's hotels. Experience has shown, however,

that many people take little interest in continuous reading if left to themselves. It has therefore proved useful to organise study groups of four to ten members, which can discuss the books that have been read. These groups may also discuss such subjects as community and family problems, psychology, world politics, health questions, languages and navigation. For the last-named subject, the ship's officers can give valuable help. The Welfare Council has sent suggestions for the organisation of study groups to all ships.

### *Medical Care for Norwegian Seafarers Abroad*

In an attempt to improve the unsatisfactory conditions described earlier in this article, the Norwegian Public Health Service has established medical offices in a few ports visited regularly by large numbers of Norwegian seafarers (New York, London, Liverpool). The size of the office depends on the number of seafarers visiting the port. There are usually one or more doctors, together with nurses, laboratory personnel and office staff, all of whom are permanently employed on fixed salaries, paid out of the health budget of the Norwegian State.

The main task of these medical offices is to treat sick Norwegian seafarers or arrange for their treatment by approved specialists or in approved hospitals. The staff of the office can quickly determine which doctors and hospitals in a port meet the required standards of treatment. Wherever possible, the members of the staff are prepared to go on board ship, to give vaccinations and health instruction. They also advise on problems of rehabilitation and repatriation, and they can be consulted by seafarers on their mental problems. The offices act in an advisory capacity to the consulate, the representatives of shipowners, the seafarers' organisations, the Seamen's Church and any local welfare institutions. In addition, they provide dental treatment by permanently employed dentists. This has proved very popular because seafarers spending only a short time in port can rarely make appointments with a private dentist. This branch of the service is important because, in general, the dental condition of Norwegian seafarers is poor. In some cases, arrangements have been made for a dentist to remain on board ship

until the necessary work for all members of the crew has been completed. Seafarers pay for this work at fixed rates; the money goes to the medical office, which pays the dentist a fixed salary.

Norwegian experience suggests that medical offices of this type in foreign ports are very effective and save a large amount of money for those responsible for the payment of medical bills. Moreover, their experience provides for the first time a reliable picture of the special medical conditions of seafarers as a class.

All medical treatment is covered by the compulsory contributory sickness insurance scheme for Norwegian seafarers established by the Act of 13 December 1946 as amended by the Act of 18 June 1948. These regulations are a development of the arrangements which were made for the sickness insurance of Norwegian seafarers outside Norway during the second world war. In addition to refunding necessary medical expenses and the cost of drugs, the Sickness Fund pays sickness benefit, supplemented by an allowance for dependants. A special rate of allowance applies if the seafarer is ill in a foreign port. Benefit is payable so long as a member of the Fund is unfit for work at sea, even if he cannot be considered completely unfit for work in general. Benefits are also paid in respect of seafarers' dependants. Under this scheme, the seafarer will not incur any expense on account of sickness if he applies to the Norwegian medical officer or attends the doctor, dentist or hospital to which he is referred by the consulate. If, for personal reasons, he consults another doctor, who charges a higher fee, he must himself meet the additional cost. This restriction does not apply in an emergency where the seafarer has no chance to consult the consulate.

## Suggestions for Further International Action

As a result of some ten years' experience, the Norwegian seafarers and shipowners, and also the Sickness Fund and the health services, are strongly of the opinion that it would be desirable to establish more Norwegian medical offices in foreign ports so as to guarantee satisfactory medical treat-

DETROIT PUBLIC LIBRARY

ment at the most reasonable cost. It will, however, be obvious that it is not financially possible to maintain a medical office if the number of Norwegian seafarers passing through a particular port is comparatively small. This fact greatly limits the possible extension of the system, and thus the only course open for further development is that of co-operation with other maritime countries, some of which have already had satisfactory experience of a system similar to the Norwegian. Personally, I am convinced that the time has come for considering seriously the creation of an international health service for seafarers in all major ports.

There would seem to be three methods in particular by which this might be done :

(1) by extending the Brussels Agreement of 1924 to cover the treatment of diseases other than venereal disease ;

(2) by establishing international medical offices through co-operation between the Governments of the maritime countries concerned, under the auspices of the W.H.O. and the I.L.O. ;

(3) by establishing international medical offices through co-operation between shipping interests in the various maritime countries.

Each of these methods—and possibly others—should be carefully examined and tried out in some typical port. My own opinion is that the second offers the best and most natural solution.

The scheme would have to be planned so as to be financially self-supporting and thus without cost to the W.H.O. and the I.L.O. It would involve the setting up of a network of international health service stations for seafarers, administered by the W.H.O. and the I.L.O. through some body created for this purpose. These stations would be staffed by well-qualified physicians, dentists, nurses, laboratory personnel, etc., from many countries, receiving fixed salaries in the same way as other international staff. Norwegian experience suggests that it would not be difficult to obtain qualified medical staff for most of these positions. Service at a smaller station would qualify for promotion to a larger and more difficult station, and in time an international staff of medical

experts would grow up with a special knowledge of seafarers' health problems. It is true that such a system would not meet the justifiable demand of seafarers to be treated by persons of their own nationality. This is a very real point, and to my mind there would be every reason for retaining national medical offices where the demand was so great that their existence was financially justified. It should, however, be possible to fit these national offices into the framework of the international scheme. In order to overcome language difficulties, the international offices would have to have good interpreters permanently attached to them.

The proposed new offices could easily co-operate with the sickness insurance institutions for seafarers in countries where such insurance has been introduced. Charges could be fixed by agreement for the various types of medical services, and it may confidently be expected that expenses would be less than they are at present. Seafarers from countries which do not have sickness insurance should have an equal right to be treated at the medical offices on an agreed financial basis.

There is also room for international co-operation in preventive and control work; but most of such work, as well as rehabilitation and ordinary welfare activities, should continue to be primarily a national responsibility.

Before conditions can be considered satisfactory, I would suggest that at least certain basic requirements must be met, which can be summarised in the following terms.

With regard to health, there should be some recognised standards of fitness for seafarers, on the basis of which they should be examined when entering the occupation, when signing on and periodically thereafter. There should be special examinations for tuberculosis, venereal disease and possibly certain other diseases.

On board ship, there must be satisfactory crew accommodation, including hospital accommodation, baths and sanitary installations. A suitable medicine chest, including prophylactic kits, should be carried, and certain members of the crew should be trained to give first aid, some medical care and up-to-date treatment for venereal disease. Arrangements for the provision of medical advice to ships by wireless should be developed. A proper standard of food and catering should be maintained, and ship's cooks should be required to obtain

certificates. In ports, medical and hospital treatment of a recognised standard should be available for all seafarers, as well as ambulatory treatment. Hygienic and sanitary conditions on board should be regularly inspected, and provision made for the transport of sick and injured seamen.

In general, it is essential to develop a sound system of financing health services for seafarers and to provide medical care for their dependants. The responsibility of national public health services for providing medical care for their own and foreign seafarers must be clearly defined. There is also much to be done in educating the individual seafarer in health matters and personal hygiene.

The essential welfare requirements on board ship would seem to be the organisation of libraries, educational courses, study groups, hobbies, sports and gymnastics, a newspaper service and a radio news service. In port, there should be good accommodation (seafarers' hotels), reading rooms, clubs, welfare staff in major ports, sightseeing trips, sports and competitions (with suitable fields available), social events and dances. Arrangements for transport and services for the transmission of savings are also necessary.

It is true that many countries have taken steps to meet all the above requirements and more. But what is needed now is to integrate these national systems into an international system wherever organisation on an international basis seems preferable and practicable. This can be done only step by step, and care must be taken that it does not lead to a further weakening of the ties between seafarers and their own countries.

To my mind, there are five items which should be organised without delay on an international basis in order to attain the desired degree of development:

(1) ambulatory treatment of disease (establishment of seamen's international health services);

(2) hospital accommodation ashore;

(3) acceptance of minimum requirements for medicine chests on board;

(4) accommodation (hotels) in ports;

(5) welfare services ashore, sightseeing, social activities, admittance to training fields, arrangement of international sports competitions.

There are two ways in which an international solution to these problems might be found. The first is the old and tried method which has already been fruitfully employed by the international governmental organisations—the adoption of resolutions, Recommendations and Conventions. As is well known, the I.L.O. has already acted along those lines on a number of the subjects mentioned above. There are, however, many difficulties in this approach, particularly the slowness and hesitation with which many Governments ratify Conventions and accept Recommendations, even if they have voted for them in the first instance. While waiting for ratifications to come in, one is more or less paralysed since there seems to be nothing that can be done in the interval to secure more rapid progress.

It is of interest in this connection to note that the Constitution of the W.H.O. on this point represents an attempt to secure more rapid progress from Governments in international work. Article 21 of the Constitution reads as follows :

The Health Assembly shall have authority to adopt regulations concerning :

*(a)* sanitary and quarantine requirements and other procedures designed to prevent the international spread of disease ;

*(b)* nomenclatures with respect to diseases, causes of death and public health practices ;

*(c)* standards with respect to diagnostic procedures for international use ;

*(d)* standards with respect to the safety, purity and potency of biological, pharmaceutical and similar products moving in international commerce ;

*(e)* advertising and labelling of biological, pharmaceutical and similar products moving in international commerce.

Article 22, however, contains the following qualifying provision :

Regulations adopted pursuant to Article 21 shall come into force for all Members after due notice has been given of their adoption by the Health Assembly except for such Members as may notify the Director-General of rejection or reservations within the period stated in the notice.

As will be seen, the difference between the above provisions and those of the constitutions of other international organisations of a similar type is that regulations adopted by the Health Assembly are not mere recommendations but become binding on all Member States unless they give notice of rejection or make specific reservations within a certain time limit. This represents some, even if only modest progress. The W.H.O. has already successfully adopted its first health regulations under this arrangement.

The mere ratification of a Convention laying down general principles is not enough ; it must be supplemented by practical action to give effect to the principles, and experience shows that a long time often elapses before Governments feel obliged to take such practical action. To my mind, the main reason for this is that although a great deal of careful work has been put into the drawing up of international principles and regulations, too little attention has been paid to the setting up of the material institutions and the training of the qualified personnel needed to ensure the effective application of Conventions or Recommendations. Quite rightly, regulations have been drawn up guaranteeing to patients the right to enter a hospital, but it is left more or less to chance to ensure that enough hospitals are available ; the right to medical care is guaranteed, but there is no assurance that this medical care is of a sufficiently high standard ; and so forth. The chief difficulty in the social and health work of the various international organisations is that they have developed too much as administrative and fact-finding organisations and far too little as operating organisations. Some of the specialised agencies, including the W.H.O., are at present at a cross-roads where they must choose between the old administrative approach and an attempt to retain greater freedom of action in the field which will enable them to be of real practical use.

It would seem that useful work for the health and welfare of seafarers could be carried out in the future under the joint auspices of the I.L.O. and the W.H.O., with the necessary co-operation of the organisations of shipowners and seafarers. If this form of international machinery is found too slow and too cumbersome, there is the alternative method of securing international progress in these fields : representatives of the

shipowners and the seafarers take matters into their own hands for the benefit of the industry they represent.

Whatever form of international action may prove most suitable, it should be clear from what has been said in this article that there are still many defects to be remedied and many abuses to be removed before the situation can be considered satisfactory. It is to be hoped that all the interested parties—the I.L.O., the W.H.O., national Governments, the shipowners and the seafarers—will fully appreciate the need for rapid action and will co-operate willingly in an attempt to secure the fullest possible protection for the health of seafarers and to ensure their wellbeing, both ashore and afloat.

# An Outline of the Social and Economic Structure of Iran: I

by

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***The social and economic problems of the Near and Middle East, to which the International Labour Organisation has from the first devoted attention, take on a particular interest in the days preceding a regional conference such as that to be held at Teheran in April next at the invitation of the Iranian Government. The publication of an article of a general character on Iran may therefore be considered opportune. For facts and figures concerning,*** inter alia, ***the distribution of land, land tenure, handicrafts, modern industries and the volume of manpower, the reader may find it useful to refer to a statistical study, based on the most recent information available, which appeared in the*** Review ***in 1949.***[1] ***In the following pages, the author's aim has been to give a picture of present conditions in Iran, rather than a dry collection of facts. A brief geographical introduction and a general account of the social and economic structure provide a concrete framework for the analysis of social legislation which will be given in the second part of the article.***[2]

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[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. LIX, No. 5, May 1949, pp. 550-562: "Agricultural and Industrial Activity and Manpower in Iran". See also, INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE, Studies and Reports, New Series, No. 24: *Labour Conditions in the Oil Industry in Iran* (Geneva, 1950), which contains, in Chapter IX in particular, a certain amount of general information on the present situation in Iran.

[2] Most of the information in this article has been obtained from publications in Persian. Among works of reference in European languages the author would mention the three following:

B. NIKITENE: "La structure économique de la Perse", reprinted from *Revue économique internationale* (Brussels, September 1931);

## INTRODUCTION

IRAN, or Persia[1], the former empire of the Persians, stretches from the Caspian Sea in the north to the Persian Gulf in the south, and has an area of 628,000 square miles, or three times that of France. Although it is a country of widely varying climate and altitude, it can be divided into two clearly defined regions : a dry region, occupying over two thirds of the total area ; and the moist and thickly forested region forming the remainder, including the provinces in the vicinity of the Caspian.

Apart from the coastal zone of the Persian Gulf, the dry region consists almost entirely of the Iranian plateau. The average height of the plateau above sea level is 4,300 feet, and it is surrounded on every side except in the east by high mountain ranges of an elevation of 6,500 to 18,600 feet (Mount Demavend, in the north, the highest peak in the Elburz Mountains). These mountain ranges form a barrier against moist winds from the sea ; a continental climate results, and the mountains thus account for the aridity of the country.

In the centre and to the west, the Iranian plateau slopes down to a depression forming a vast salt desert (the Dasht-i-Kavir and the Kavir-i-Lut), about 2,150 feet above sea level.[2] considered to be the most arid place in the world. This enormous depression, about 430 miles long and over 250 miles wide, is in places covered by a layer of salt three feet thick. The larger towns, most of which lie more than 3,000 feet above sea level (Teheran, 3,800 feet ; Hamadan, 6,560 feet) are on the borders of the desert.

On the other side of the Elburz mountains, which thus divide Iran into two quite different worlds, lies the moist

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K. SANDJABI : *Essai sur l'économie rurale et le régime foncier de la Perse* (doctorate thesis, Paris, Domat-Montchrestien, 1937) ;
E. K. ALAMI : *Le redressement économique de l'Iran* (doctorate thesis, Paris, A. Lapied, 1939).

[1] " Iran " was substituted for the name " Persia " (really that of one of the provinces) in 1935, but the latter is once more officially recognised, as well as Iran, as the name of the country.

[2] Certain areas, such as the marshes of Namak-Sar east of Kerman, are only 1,000 feet above sea-level.

region—green, colourful, tropical Persia—the only region where humus is to be found.

The hydrography of Iran is of special interest. In this country of closed basins the rainfall, which is very slight [1], runs off not to the sea, but to the depressions in the interior of the plateau. There are few rivers with a permanent flow, and artificial irrigation, which is carried out by means of an ingenious and complicated system of underground channels *(kanât)*, is essential.

In general, the climate is of a continental character, running to extremes [2], with very sudden daily changes in temperature. As already stated, its most notable characteristic is aridity. The southern Persian Gulf region has a subtropical climate with temperatures of up to 50° C. (122° F.) in the shade.

Iran is a country with a relatively sparse, not to say very sparse population. In the absence of any systematic census carried out on scientific principles, it is not easy to give an exact figure for the total population, but according to estimates that have been made, it lies between 12 and 16 or even 18 million. Its density is very unevenly distributed, depending on the climate and the type of soil, and is highest around the central desert, where people have settled as it were on the shores of a great inland sea. They are Indo-European in race and idiom, and of the Moslem (Shiah) faith. Although there is much variation from one region to another, they are composed in the aggregate as to 50 per cent. of peasants, as to 25 per cent. of nomads and as to 25 per cent. of towndwellers.

The urban population lives in some 120 towns. According to a recent census, Teheran has about a million inhabitants. Eleven other towns, with a total population of some 1,020,000, each have over 50,000 inhabitants. Only 20 per cent. of the total population lives in towns with more than 10,000 inhabitants.

The density of the population—about 25 to the square mile assuming a total of 15 million inhabitants—varies from 70-95 in the Caspian provinces to only 5, or even less, in the south and south-west. At least half the country is completely uninhabited.

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[1] The average annual rainfall on the plateau is less than 8 inches.

[2] Teheran maximum and minimum temperatures are +41.1° and –16° C.

## Social Structure and Living Conditions

About forty years ago, a writer very well acquainted with Iran described the social structure of the country succinctly in these terms : " At the top, the King and his court ; at the bottom, a nation of peasants ; in between, three grades of parasite : the merchant, the clerk and the aristocrat ; and on one side, the nomad." [1] He also said : " Persia is neither State nor nation. It is a strange combination of feudal anarchy and a centralised financial system, an unstable compound of nomadic tribes and of farmers who are only loosely settled on the land." [2] The national revolution, which gave Iran a Constitution in 1906 [3] and a parliamentary régime of a democratic character, has led to great changes in national life. But it can still be said that, in some respects at least, the above description holds good.

It has been truly said that modern Iran lies between two worlds : on the one side, a patriarchal world with a simple way of life and piously preserved century-old customs, and on the other, a generation eager for modern civilisation. Yet in spite of this profound divergence—a divergence that the development of means of communication and of public education is tending to diminish—there is a link, as strong as it is ancient, which unites the various elements of the population : the land. Now, as in the past, the land is Iran's main source of wealth. The greater part of the national income is derived from agriculture ; the country's foreign trade can be balanced only by the sale of the produce of its fields and herds. The Iranian character has always been marked by attachment to the land. The sacred book of the ancient Iranians, Zoroaster's *Avesta*, clearly reflects this farmer mentality, in putting earth among the sacred elements. The other essential factor is the supply of water : the presence of water has led to the formation of population centres, its disappearance to their abandonment.

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[1] Victor Bérard : *La Révolution de l'Iran* (Paris, Armand Colin, 1910), p. 339.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 21.

[3] The fundamental constitutional laws are dated 30 December 1906 and 8 October 1907.

### *Composition of the Population*

At the present time the population of Iran includes a small, competent and cultured élite which administers the country. It is steadily increasing in numbers as a result of the rapid extension of the education available to the youth of Iran, either at home or abroad. Government departments are staffed from this class. There are six times as many Government officials now as there were twenty years ago ; it is estimated that there are at present about 160,000.

There are a few hundred wealthy families, mostly of large landowners, which play a great part, unfortunately not always in the country's best interests, in determining the political, as well as the economic and social policy of Iran ; they generally belong to this élite. These large landowners have always provided the backbone of Iran's social structure, and perhaps they still do.

A large number of these landlords have been absentees for some decades, and they have thus helped to form the urban bourgeoisie. At the other extreme, recent mechanisation has given rise, in great industrial centres such as Abadan, Isfahan, Teheran and Mazanderan, to an industrial proletariat which, though still small in numbers, is becoming increasingly conscious of its rights and its interests.

Next, there is a middle class, small in numbers, chiefly small tradesmen and handicraftsmen in the towns, generally of small means and insufficiently educated to be able to influence social or economic development. However, there are signs from which it may be inferred that little by little it is beginning, particularly in the large towns, to become aware of the part it should play in the life of the country.

The craftsman class, once active and powerful, has been unable to meet the competition of the manufactured goods produced by the industries of the West, and it suffered greatly in the nineteenth century. It is struggling hard to maintain itself, but its numbers, though still considerable, are dwindling.

The rural masses, which constitute 70 to 75 per cent. of the total population, and at least 90 per cent. of whom are illiterate, are extremely poor, temperate and hard-working ; they are of a resigned and quiet character, and generally meet the major part of the manpower requirements of growing modern industries.

*The Nomads.*

A part of the rural population—about one third—consists of nomads called *iliati* (tribes). The vast open spaces of Iran, with their great variety of climate, have always provided favourable conditions for nomadic life, and it has been estimated, as already mentioned, that one quarter of the population of the country consists of nomadic tribes. These pastoral or semi-pastoral peoples, whose economy has been very little studied as yet, are to be found in large communities, living under goat's hair tents. At the coming of summer and winter they move with their flocks for distances sometimes amounting to hundreds of miles, and settle down where they find the best pasture. During the spring and summer months the nomads gradually move up the mountain slopes to their summer quarters *(yeylâq)*. In the bad season they go back to their winter quarters *(qechlâq)* in the plain.

All the mountain peoples of Iran are nomads also, but neither constantly nor completely so. Though they live in tents during the summer when they are leading their flocks to other pastures, they also have villages for the winter, consisting of mud, wooden or stone huts, surrounding the castle of the tribal chief (the *khân* or *ilkhân*), and fields to which they return every year for sowing and harvesting.

The Iranian tribes are more than 250 in number, and many of them can be further subdivided into groups of varying importance. Actually, each tribe either is or was politically and economically an almost independent unit, governed by a chief who both makes and enforces the law, and acts as military leader should the need arise. Stock raising, which is particularly well adapted to tribal life, is for the most part carried on by the tribes, and is an important source of the country's wealth.

The problem of stock raising in relation to the nomadic peoples is, in fact, daily becoming more pressing. Stock raising is clearly an essential factor in meeting the requirements both of home consumption and of foreign trade ; on the other hand, the situation of the nomadic tribes gives rise to many difficult problems. To safeguard the order and stability which are necessary for the country's social development, it seems absolutely indispensable to put an end once and for all to the

roving way of life of the nomadic tribes. But it would also be wise to adopt no measures that might imperil the existence or the development of stock raising. The attempts made by the authorities about fifteen years ago to make nomads adopt a settled mode of living have not been successful, though it should be said that in most cases these schemes had not been studied as carefully as the problem required.

The extreme complexity of the social structure, which results primarily from the acute antagonism generated by two conflicting ways of life, those of the nomadic and of the settled population, is an essential feature of Iran, as of almost all countries in the Near and Middle East. Since this structure goes back for thousands of years, it may be readily imagined that it constitutes a considerable obstacle to attempts at unification.

It is of some interest to note that although a pastoral life has generally been held to rank below an agricultural one in its degree of civilisation, the position in Iran would seem to contradict this view: the pastoral peoples move with the seasons and are not exposed to the rigours of the climate; their tents are far more healthy than the insanitary dwellings of the peasantry; and they are generally better fed than the settled farmer. The nomads therefore rather despise the peasants as being " cooped up and sickly ".

*Women in National Life.*

Since Iran is a Moslem (Shiah) State, women, at least in towns and centres of any importance, used to be veiled and took little part in economic and social life. Their status was determined wholly by Moslem religious law, and their lot remained unchanged for centuries: they were completely dependent on their husbands, and had hardly any rights, either political or social.[1] This exclusion of Iranian women from national activities was all the more to be regretted as they are generally very quick-witted. It should be noted that women played a more important role in the country districts and among the nomads.

Women were in practice excluded from social life in the

[1] Cf. J. CASTAGNÉ: " La condition actuelle de la femme persane ", in *Revue des études islamiques* (Paris), 1928, p. 17.

towns, in spite of a number of measures taken on their behalf, the most important being the Marriage Act of 16 August 1931, which granted them access to the civil courts and the right to administer and dispose of their property without the husband's permission, as well as putting severe restraints on polygamy and prohibiting the marriage of minors. The decisive step in this field was taken by Reza Pahlevi Shah, who on 8 January 1938 solemnly proclaimed the emancipation of Iranian women, though the actual application of the principle has not been effected without encountering a certain resistance, and may not be complete even at the present day.

### *Distribution of the Land*

Iran is a country where large estates and small holdings co-exist. Large estates *(arbâbi)* predominate ; they cover from 40 to 50 per cent. of the cultivated land. Small peasant holdings *(khorde-mâlek)* are of little importance, and comprise only about 5 per cent. of the cultivated land. The rest is divided among medium-sized holdings (20 to 30 per cent.), State lands *(khâlesseh)* and the property of religious foundations *(aaughâf)*.

It has been estimated that the State lands cover about 3.5 or 4 per cent. of the total cultivated area. Twenty-five per cent. of the national revenue was derived from them at the beginning of the century, whereas at the present day they account for no more than 0.4 per cent. For this reason, and on other political and economic grounds, the State wishes to dispose of them : hence the passage of an Act in January 1936, entitled the National Lands Sale and Agricultural Credit Development Act.

Of the landowners, about 60 per cent. are peasants, 30 per cent. belong to the intermediate class, and 10 per cent. are large landowners. It should be noted that only 2 to 5 per cent. of the rural population own any land. It is clear, then, that the middle classes are practically inexistent : there is almost no middle term between the landlord class and the body of landless peasants or *râayats*.

The system of land tenure is still largely feudal, with the village or the pasture as the unit, according as the population is settled or nomadic. The farming systems practised are

those of direct exploitation, share cropping and tenant farming or leasing (in fact, a form of tenant farming).

Produce is distributed according to a time-honoured system which has no real economic basis and is often the cause of great injustice to the peasants. The Persian proverbial phrase *bokkor-o-namir*—to eat just enough not to starve—which is often used in speaking of the peasants, is significant.

It should be pointed out that the almost servile condition of some of the peasantry has its roots not in a legal system, but in the history of Iran and in the indifference or weakness of the unstable governments of the past. Equality of race and class is recognised by Moslem law. The present Constitution of Iran lays down that "all citizens are equal before the law" (Article 8), and that "the life, liberty, property, domicile and honour of every citizen is guaranteed equally" (Article 9).

A complete absence of caste is, indeed, characteristic of the Iranian social structure, and it is easy to enter a higher social class. It is significant that in Oriental tales there are many examples of humble citizens who reach the highest eminences of the social hierarchy through their intelligence and ability.

### *State Education*

Although compulsory education is provided for in the Constitution and in a basic Act of 1 November 1911, the application of these provisions has long been gravely impeded by the lack of funds and teaching staff. Only twenty years ago there was an almost total lack of secondary and university education. Primary schools were to be found only in towns, and girls did not receive proper education. In 1924, the total number of schools for the whole country was only 1,943, attended by 96,000 pupils; the illiteracy rate was 95 per cent. In 1936, twelve years later, the number of schools, primary and secondary, whether modern or of the old type, was 4,939; they had 258,275 pupils, including 62,954 girls. At that time, therefore, only 155 out of every 10,000 inhabitants were attending school; and there was only one school for every 15 market towns or villages. In 1949 there were 15,000 teachers, and 360,000 children attending primary school. The funds allotted to the Ministry of Education amounted

in that year to 600 million rials [1]—as compared with 120 million rials in 1942.

In July 1944 a new Act was passed, under which the Government was to extend compulsory primary education gradually so as to cover the whole country in ten years.

In virtue of an Act of 1928, valid for six years, 544 State scholars were sent to various European countries to complete their university studies. A large number of young men and women go abroad every year to study. At the beginning of 1936, a year for which figures are available, there were 1,651 of these students abroad.

On 4 February 1935, the King laid the foundation stone of the University of Teheran, which comprises faculties of medicine, science, arts, technology and law. More faculties of arts or medicine have been established in other towns. Iran now has a body of high schools and teachers' training colleges, attended by a growing number of students of either sex.

In pursuance of a Cabinet decision that illiteracy must be eradicated, classes for illiterate adults were first organised in June 1936. Each of these classes is attended by two sets of students; at the end of the 1938 school-year, the number of students attending the classes was 124,233, many of them being workers.

It is clear, then, that much progress has been made in Iran during the last few years to develop State education, but there is still much to be done.

### *The Standard of Living*

The problem of housing is of considerable importance in Iran, particularly for the peasant population. Descriptions of Oriental towns, their network of winding streets and the labyrinthine vaulted passages of their bazaars, are familiar to every reader. However, for some years past modern quarters, with comfortable and healthy accommodation for for the well-to-do, have been built in the larger towns. On the other hand, housing conditions in rural areas generally leave much to be desired. The houses in the villages on the plateau, for instance, may be said to represent the poorest

[1] At the present official rate of exchange, £1 = 89 rials.

type of human dwelling : made of wood and dried mud, very low and without window-panes or windows, they are more like the dens of wild beasts than human dwellings. Air and light can enter only through small holes in the roof, which also serve to let out the smoke. In these huts, which are not divided by partitions, men and beasts often live together. The villagers put up with these conditions solely because of the severity of the winter ; in many provinces they leave their vermin-infested houses as soon as the weather becomes mild, and go to live under a kind of temporary shelter of wood and leaves. In certain hot and dry areas in the south, the villages consist of huts made of rushes or palm leaves.

The Iranian peasant has to make do with little food : bread not always made of wheat ; milk, especially curds called *mâst* ; tea ; rarely fruit or pulse ; and even more rarely meat and rice.

The masses are extremely poor, and the average income incredibly low : in rural areas it is no more than an average of 100 dollars a year for each family. The peasant masses are in the grip of unchanging traditions, and cultivate plots that are too small by means that are too primitive.

Conditions are obviously quite unsatisfactory from the sanitary point of view. Infantile mortality is high : in certain regions 65 to 70 per cent. of infants die under the age of five. There is significance in the saying, known throughout Iran, that " in spring the peasant swears by the life of his child, and in winter by its tomb ". Almost everywhere, endemic contagious diseases, in particular, malaria, trachoma and syphilis, deprive a considerable proportion of the rural population of their strength and make them unfit for steady productive work. The average expectation of life for these people has been put at twenty-seven years.

## Economic Structure

Although Iran is rich in natural resources of all kinds and should be in a position to build up a complex economy, its economic structure is still basically agrarian, in spite of the rapid strides made in industry. The protectionist policy followed for some thirty years, which aims at securing a

balanced economy through co-operation between industry and agriculture, does not seem to have achieved the results originally expected, although it met with a certain initial success.

### *Agriculture*

We have seen that between 70 and 75 per cent. of the economically active population is engaged in agriculture. In fact, many small towns still present a semi-rural aspect, and a considerable proportion of their inhabitants live by farming. The wealth of the propertied classes consists principally of land.

In the export trade, agricultural and livestock produce represent at least 70 per cent. of the total. If carpets are included, which are made in the main by peasant or nomad women from wool produced in the country, the proportion is even higher.

Some 37-39 million acres of land are under cultivation—not more than a tenth or eleventh of the total area of the country, and barely a quarter of the area that could be cultivated, since certain surveys have shown that 45 per cent. of the land is sufficiently irrigated for cultivation. It would also appear possible to turn 90 per cent. of the desert areas into land suitable for grazing or even cultivation, through the introduction of an up-to-date and rational system of irrigation.

*Agricultural Produce.*

A wide variety of crops are grown, corresponding to the variations in altitude and climate, from dates in the south to olives in the north. In fact, Iran grows nearly every kind of fruit, and some are dried for export. Cereals and vegetables are cultivated as well as plants used in industry and for fodder. However, the majority of these crops, with the exception of cereals and possibly also cotton and opium, are grown on rather a small scale. Wheat represents from 30 to 60 per cent. of the total annual production, and is grown over an area of approximately 4.6 million acres. The yield was 1,118,500 metric tons in 1925 and reached double the quantity in the year 1935-36, with 2,050,190 metric tons ; nearly all of it is consumed inside the country. Rice is grown mainly in the Caspian provinces, and together with bread forms the staple diet. However, owing to its high price its consumption is

almost entirely confined to the more well-to-do classes. The annual production of rice amounts to some 400,000 tons, from 500,000 acres. As rice growing tends to breed malaria, an attempt is being made to replace it by other crops, especially cotton.

The soil is particularly suitable for the growing of cotton, which is the crop that has increased most in importance in the last twenty years. During the American War of Secession, when the world market was deprived of American cotton, the production of Iranian cotton increased considerably. In 1934-35, the area under cotton was 267,500 acres and the Government planned its extension. In 1935-36 production reached approximately 95,000 tons. Since the creation of a sugar industry in Iran, beet growing has been developed. The cultivation of tobacco and tea has been introduced recently and the output is increasing.

Opium calls for special mention since Iran is one of the few opium-producing countries. The annual production, which formerly varied between 750 and 900 tons, now shows a certain falling off: in the year 1934-35 it was only about 480 tons from 58,000 acres under poppy cultivation. The decrease is partly due to the efforts of the authorities to restrict poppy growing. As opium eating is widespread in Iran, a large proportion, estimated at some 150 tons, of the total annual yield is consumed inside the country. An enquiry into methods of replacing the poppy by other plants was made in 1925 by a commission sent to Iran by the League of Nations; the report containing the findings of the commission was submitted to the Council of the League in 1926.[1]

The importance of stock raising has already been stressed. From 40 to 50 per cent. of the highlands consist of pasture land (10 to 15 per cent. of the total area of the country) suitable for large-scale stock raising. The total livestock in 1934-35 numbered some 23 million sheep and goats, 2½ million head of cattle and 410,000 horses and mules. Livestock produce amounted in value to roughly 1,000 million rials and represented some 40 per cent. of the total agricultural produce of Iran.

[1] LEAGUE OF NATIONS: *Commission of Enquiry into the Production of Opium in Persia.* Report to the Council, C.580.M.219.1926.XI (Geneva, 1926).

### *Industry*

Although Iran is an essentially agricultural country, its handicraft production has always been important. The degree of perfection attained by Iranian craftsmen in the Sassanid and Safavi periods[1], the most flourishing in the history of its handicrafts, was clearly shown in three exhibitions of Persian art, held in London (1931), Leningrad (1935) and Paris (1938). Even today, in spite of the decline due to competition from goods manufactured in the West, handicrafts still play a greater part in the national economy than modern industry and provide a livelihood for many more families. However, it cannot be denied that they are declining wherever modern industry has succeeded in developing the manufacture of standardised goods.

*Industrialisation.*

In order to understand the motives which have promoted industrialisation in Iran, it is necessary to glance rapidly at the economic situation of the country in the period immediately following the first world war and the economic policy which the Government felt compelled to adopt.

Shortly after the war, when the Pahlevi régime was set up as a result of the *coup d'état* of 22 February 1921, Iran was going through an acute economic crisis. The trade balance and the balance of payments showed a chronic deficit and the State was threatened with bankruptcy. It was faced with apparently insurmountable financial and economical difficulties, and a considerable effort was necessary in order to restore the economic situation to normal.

The first essential step was to establish the national economy on a firm basis. The programme adopted for this purpose by the Government may be summarised as follows : (1) State assumption of the economic direction of the country ; (2) reorganisation of the factors of production ; (3) achievement of a balance between the consumption of foreign products and the national purchasing power ; (4) expansion of purchasing power. In this way a planned economy came into being

[1] In the 3rd–7th and 16th–18th centuries A.D., respectively.

in Iran. The principal measures taken by the Government in pursuance of this economic programme were the adoption of a customs tariff in conformity with the policy of eventual economic independence, the stabilisation of the currency and regulation of exchange, the creation of a State monopoly in foreign trade and the creation of modern industries.

Even before the war the foreign trade of Iran, although it had increased to almost five times its volume, showed a regular deficit, averaging 110 million rials, or 19 to 20 per cent. of the total volume. The only way to save the country from economic ruin was to bring foreign trade under State control. The monopoly in foreign trade created by the Act of 25 February 1931 (supplemented by the Act of 11 March of the same year), which involved a system of quotas and export premiums, proved sufficiently effective and brought about a certain balance between imports and exports.

However, it was impossible to restrict imports indefinitely without imperilling the wellbeing of the nation, and the Government accordingly contemplated the establishment of industrial activities for working up the abundant natural resources of the country and supplying the demand for consumer goods. In carrying out this programme it employed two methods : (1) encouragement and protection of private enterprise, especially by facilitating the importation of industrial machinery, developing industrial credit and introducing a protectionist policy ; (2) direct State participation in industrialisation.

The figures given below show the rapid expansion from 1931 to 1939—both relative and absolute—of the credits set aside for developing the national economy.

| Budget | 1931 | | 1939 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Amount (million rials) | Percentage of total | Amount (million rials) | Percentage of total |
| National economy . . . . . | 78 | 19 | 702 | 46 |
| National defence . . . . . | 124 | 31 | 354 | 23 |
| Administration . . . . . | 201 | 50 | 471 | 31 |
| Total . . . . . | 403 | 100 | 1,527 | 100 |

Private enterprise soon followed suit. Guided, supported and encouraged by the State, it gradually created a host of small industries. The following table shows the various industries in existence in 1947, with the number of factories in each branch :

| Industry | Number of factories | |
|---|---|---|
| Textiles : | | |
| Government factories | 5 | 69 |
| Cotton spinning and weaving | 25 | |
| Wool spinning and weaving | 9 | |
| Knitwear and hosiery | 30 | |
| Cotton cleaning | 29 | |
| Cotton ginning ; wool scouring | 5 | |
| Sugar (State industry) | 8 | |
| Tea (State industry) | 6 | |
| Preserves | 2 | |
| Flour milling | 16 | |
| Rice polishing | 21 | |
| Distilling and brewing | 30 | |
| Soap and oils | 16 | |
| Chemical products (State industry) | 11 | |
| Matches | 26 | |
| Tanning | 11 | |
| Glass | 6 | |
| Cement (State industry) | 1 | |
| Railway sleepers (State industry) | 1 | |
| Electric power stations | 92 | |
| Miscellaneous | 84 | |
| Total | 434 | |

In 1947-48, 65 applications for licences to open new factories were submitted to the competent authorities.

*(To be continued.)*

# REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

## National and International Measures for Full Employment

### Recommendations of the Economic and Social Council

*At its Eleventh Session, held at Geneva in July and August 1950, the United Nations Economic and Social Council considered in more detail the report of a group of experts on the problems of maintaining full employment which it had briefly examined at its Tenth Session.*[1] *It concluded its deliberations by adopting a list of far-reaching recommendations. The present article summarises the main points which were made during the discussions, whether in the Economic Committee of the Council or in plenary session, and in these recommendations.*[2] *The text of the resolution on full employment adopted by the Council, in which the recommendations were set out, is reproduced as an appendix.*[3]

The discussions of the Economic and Social Council at its Eleventh Session on full employment, and the recommendations which it made, dealt with three main topics : the meaning of full employment and the extent to which it should be given priority as an objective of economic and social policy ; the domestic measures which countries should take in order to maintain full employment ; and the measures which should be taken internationally for this purpose.

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[1] See *International Labour Review*, Vol. LXI, No. 4, April 1950, pp. 385-409 : " National and International Measures for Full Employment ", for a summary of the experts' report and of the discussions on it which took place in the Economic and Employment Commission and the Economic and Social Council during January and February 1950. (The following *errata* on p. 406 should be noted : line 2, delete the word " than " ; line 3, for " exports " read " imports ".)

[2] For the record of the discussions in the Council and Economic Committee, see UNITED NATIONS ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL, Eleventh Session, Documents E/SR. 385 and 389-394 and Documents E/AC.6/SR. 86-90.

[3] Cf. *idem*, Document E/1849.

On the invitation of the Council, Mr. N. Kaldor, a member of the group of experts whose report was being discussed, attended the proceedings.[1]

## Full Employment: Concept and Objective

The achievement of full employment was generally recognised in the discussions of the Council as an economic imperative for the maintenance of free-market types of economies. Some doubts were, however, raised concerning the content and the priority which Governments should give to this objective.

Thus the Belgian representative maintained that the United Nations experts had too limited a concept of full employment. He distinguished six major types of unemployment—frictional, seasonal, structural, cyclical, residual and technological—and suggested that full employment should be defined as " a situation in which unemployment arising from inadequate demand was eliminated ". According to this definition, a state of full employment could be said to exist even in the presence of types of unemployment other than the frictional or seasonal for which the experts' definition of a state of full employment made allowance. The definition should also allow for the residual unemployment of workers difficult to employ by reason of their age or state of health and the technological unemployment of workers who were unemployed as a result of an increase in individual productivity.

Commenting on this proposed definition of full employment, Mr. Kaldor pointed out that if residual unemployment meant persons unfit for ordinary employment, such persons were automatically excluded from a definition of full employment which referred only to those able and willing to work and seeking work. Technological unemployment, he said, had two aspects. Either it applied to labour transfers between different industries which were necessitated by technological changes, in which case it was automatically included in frictional unemployment. Or, alternatively, it was the result of increased productivity unaccompanied by a corresponding growth in purchasing power, in which case it was evidence of a failure of effective demand.

The discussion also showed that there was some reluctance to make the pursuit of full employment a primary economic objective, on the ground that it might conflict with other desirable economic objectives. The Belgian representative expressed the fear that a policy of full employment might lead to serious internal disequilibrium in the form of rising prices, a decrease of productivity and a falling standard of living and to serious external disequilibrium in the form of a balance-of-payments deficit. The Canadian representative

[1] The Australian representative, Dr. Walker, had also been a member of the group, and in that capacity was able to offer explanations on its report.

also feared that a concentration of all efforts on the single objective of full employment might seriously hamper the achievement of higher standards of living and economic stability.

In contrast to the above views, the United Kingdom representative contended that a state of full employment was conducive to, rather than deterrent from, higher productivity ; in fact, United Kingdom statistics seemed to indicate that a sharp decline in productivity was associated with falling demand and output, owing perhaps to the development of restrictive practices inspired by a fear of overproduction. Similarly, the French representative maintained that an increase in productivity went hand in hand with full employment and cited the data presented in Chapter 8 of the *Economic Survey of Europe in 1949*.[1]

The resolution adopted by the Council, gives no particular priority to full employment in economic policy, but merely reiterates the obligation of members to promote the three major objectives contained in Article 55 of the United Nations Charter, namely, higher standards of living, economic stability and full employment.

## Recommendations on Domestic Measures

### *Full Employment Targets*

Although the concept of a full employment target met with general approval in the Council, it was pointed out by the United Kingdom representative that on close examination there were three different types of proposed targets.

The first, proposed by the United States Government, was essentially a short-term estimate of what a Government planned or could reasonably hope to attain over a year or two. It corresponded to the kinds of target regularly presented in the *Economic Report of the President of the United States* and the United Kingdom annual *Economic Survey*. These targets were usually expressed in absolute terms rather than as percentages, and were generally formulated for a wide range of economic phenomena such as labour productivity, national income and output and consumption and investment, rather than being confined solely to unemployment as proposed by the experts.[2] Such targets were designed as general guide-posts to progress ; they did not involve a commitment on the part of the Government.

Secondly, there was the long-term employment target or standard supported by the United Kingdom representative, which he defined as measuring the " degree of fullness of employment " that a Government felt bound to aim at in fulfilment of its obligations under the

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[1] United Nations, Publication No. 1950. II.E.1.

[2] Expression to this view was given in a draft resolution submitted by the United States representative and in a statement of the Canadian representative.

United Nations Charter.[1] Although he agreed that from a purely psychological point of view it would be preferable to express the full employment target in terms of a percentage of employed rather than of unemployed, he pointed out that a successful employment policy was not measurable by the number of jobs available or filled. As Mr. Kaldor stated, the " sole criterion was whether there were enough jobs available for those able, willing and seeking to work ".

The third concept was that of the experts' report, according to which the target, along with being the criterion of success in full employment policy, should also operate as a trigger to touch off automatic compensatory action after the tolerable limits of unemployment had been exceeded for a period of three months. This type of target was not very favourably viewed by the Council, chiefly because, as observed later, the whole concept of automatic compensatory action presented in the experts' third recommendation was generally disapproved. Furthermore, as remarked by the Canadian representative, it implied a " system of Government control of industry which was not wholly compatible with an economy of free enterprise ". He suggested that the word " objective " would be better than " target ", while the United Kingdom representative in turn suggested that " goal " might be preferable to either.

In the course of discussion it was also pointed out by both the Canadian and the Danish representatives that an employment target concept was not really applicable in countries suffering a severe decline in agricultural exports, since the first consequence would be, not a visible reduction of employment, but rather a reduction of prices and incomes in the agricultural sector. The Brazilian, Indian and Pakistani representatives also emphasised that great difficulties would be found in applying the employment target concept in less developed areas.

The full employment resolution finally adopted represents a compromise among the different points of view put forward in the Council. It recommends that each Government should publish annually goals for the ensuing year, or for such longer period as may be appropriate, relating to employment, production, consumption, investment and other significant economic factors. It also recommends that each Government should publish as precisely as is practicable " the standard by which it defines the meaning of full employment as a continuing objective of policy". Further, it recognises that

[1] Cf. Mr. Kaldor's suggestion that the chief purpose of the target was to serve as a " criterion whereby the fulfilment or non-fulfilment of that obligation could be gauged ".

The United Kingdom draft resolution proposed an interesting procedure for formulating full employment standards. It suggested first of all that each Government should announce to the Secretary-General by 30 September 1950 a provisional target which it would endeavour by all means in its power to maintain. Secondly, the Secretary-General, in consultation with the International Labour Organisation, should analyse the provisional targets with a view to elucidating the comparative degree of achievement aimed at by each Government. Thirdly, on the basis of a report submitted to the Council at its Twelfth Session, each Government should adopt and announce a definitive target, taking into consideration any views that might have been expressed by the Council.

predominantly agricultural countries may be unable to make practical use of full employment goals since figures for underemployment and unemployment are not easily ascertainable.

### *The Continuing Stabilisation Programme*

The Council was generally agreed on the concept and content of the stabilisation programme as proposed by the experts and there was no extended discussion of specific measures. It recognised that full employment might be pursued by different methods or combinations of methods according to the varying interests and circumstances to be found in different countries. Several important criticisms of the experts' stabilisation programme were made, however, and omissions noted.

The United States representative contended that too much stress was placed on compensatory measures and not enough attention given to the development of preventive measures. His Government was not satisfied simply with measures to offset fluctuations in the economy, but was aiming at " the promotion of a private enterprise system in which the various sectors would grow in balanced harmony "—a co-operative effort which called for the joint participation of businessmen, farmers, labour and the Government. The Belgian representative similarly believed that the major role of the State in the field of full employment policy was " to create the most favourable conditions for private investment ".[1]

The Danish representative suggested that the experts' report, particularly in contrast with the annual economic surveys of the Economic Commission for Europe, seemed to underestimate the importance of a high rate of investment and to exaggerate the difficulties of maintaining it at a high level. The experts' approach to the savings-investment problem, he believed, had been governed too largely by the experience of a single country.

Several representatives, including those of Denmark, the United States, the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions and the International Co-operative Alliance, felt further that the treatment of wage-price relationships in the experts' report was inadequate. In reply to this criticism, Mr. Kaldor pointed out that the United States representative himself had said that there were no well-established and tested procedures for influencing the relationship between prices and wages without the use of direct Government controls ; the experts had considered the problem, but had found it difficult to reach unanimous conclusions on it.

The United States representative contended that the experts had not given sufficient weight to the role of credit and monetary policies. Similarly, the Danish representative suggested that they had under-

[1] The International Co-operative Alliance representative also maintained that compensatory measures were merely palliatives, and that the most important objective of public policy was to reduce the need for compensatory intervention.

estimated the importance of interest rate control in anti-cyclical policy.

Although the experts had referred briefly to the inclusion of anti-monopoly policy in the continuing programme, the representatives of Denmark, the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions and the International Co-operative Alliance all maintained that specific means of carrying out such a policy should be formulated. The last named called particular attention to the importance which consumer and producer co-operatives might play in breaking up monopoly and restoring competition, as evidenced by the experience of Sweden.

It was also pointed out by the United States representative that Governments could make a substantial contribution to economic expansion through the establishment of long-range public investment programmes paving the way for large private investment as well as by a short-term, anti-cyclical public investment programme. Any measures which focused the interests of businessmen on the long-run opportunities of a growing market tended to lessen the unstable effects which short-term profit expectations might have on the level of investment and employment.

Furthermore, the same representative emphasised that it was very important for each country to examine its tax system with a view to eliminating taxes which impeded economic activity. In countries where the possibilities of tax revision were greatly limited, it would be necessary to offset revenue losses resulting from desirable tax reduction by increases in other taxes which had a less deterrent effect on economic activity. Another criticism of the experts' recommendations on fiscal policy was made by the Belgian representative. While not rejecting their analysis on the theoretical level, he nevertheless believed that " the periodical revision of the fiscal system was incompatible with sound financial administration. Moreover, it might introduce, into a field where it was out of place, an element of speculation which would aggravate rather than reduce the amplitude of cyclical fluctuations."

Finally, the Canadian representative called attention to the desirability of facilitating the mobility of labour and therefore of maintaining organised and efficient employment exchanges and adequate training and retraining facilities. This suggestion was supported by representatives from Denmark, France, Pakistan, the United States and the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions.

The Council recommendation with regard to a continuing stabilisation programme is couched in general terms. It urges each Government to formulate, announce and periodically review a variety of measures to promote steady economic expansion, to combat recessionary tendencies and to promote the geographic and occupational mobility of labour.

### *Automatic Compensatory Action*

Opinion in the Council was sharply divided on the desirability of automatic compensatory action, as suggested by the experts, when unemployment in a country has exceeded for three successive months the level specified in the full employment target. The United Kingdom representative strongly favoured the general idea, believing that every Government should be in a position to ensure that " so far as was humanly possible " it could create additional demand as soon as unemployment rose above the target figure. If any country decided not to adopt the experts' proposal, it might fairly be asked to explain how it still expected to maintain full employment. To ensure the most effective application of the policy, responsibility should be delegated to the executive branch of government to make " changes in accordance with the requirements of each emergency ". Since, however, it was not likely that legislative bodies would be willing to sanction a discretionary arrangement, a purely automatic scheme would be a reasonable second-best. The Brazilian representative supported the United Kingdom, believing that " it might be difficult for administrations to admit that a situation was out of control until it was too late for adequate remedial steps to be taken ".

The Australian representative appreciated the reasons underlying the experts' recommendations, since experience had shown that valuable time had been lost in periods of crisis because the various authorities had not been certain that a true recession existed, and also because of differences of opinion as to the measures to be adopted. His Government considered that the automatic measures proposed by the experts were unnecessary, however, because of the experience that it had gained during the last fifteen years in such problems as inter-State co-operation on public works projects, stabilisation of prices of primary products, and the transfer of labour. If countries felt that automatic compensatory measures were unnecessary, the question, in his judgment, was whether they considered that they were in a " position to diagnose situations and to take action on a sufficient scale to arrest increasing unemployment ".

The majority view in the Council was opposed to the adoption of automatic measures as proposed by the experts. Attention was drawn in particular to the political difficulties involved in a delegation of legislative authority to the executive branch of government. The French delegation found it quite impossible to commit itself to automatic devices because of " Parliament's prerogatives and accepted custom ". Similarly, the United States representative emphasised the difficulties involved in implementing an automatic compensatory programme in a federal system of government where it was not known in advance what the policies of the different States would be. The Chairman of the Council (a representative of India) wondered further whether automatic compensatory measures might not raise " constitutional difficulties ".

Substantial objections were also raised on economic grounds. Several representatives, including those of Australia, Belgium, Denmark, France and the United States, pointed out that it was impossible to foresee exactly the conditions which might develop, and that the adoption of compensatory measures should depend upon the specific situation. The divergent character of deflationary periods called for different action under different conditions. For example, the United States representative suggested that if unemployment occurred as a result of a rapid decline in residential construction, an automatic cut in personal income tax rates would probably not provide the most effective means of dealing with the situation.

He also pointed out that, realistically speaking, a depression period might provide an opportunity for making long-range revisions in the tax structure that were very difficult to make during prosperity. Thus, it might be preferable to reduce excise taxes in a period of recession rather than put an automatic income tax reduction into effect.

So far as small countries with a large foreign trade were concerned, the Danish representative explained that automatic compensatory measures might lead to balance-of-payments difficulties, since a large portion of the increased expenditures would be used directly or indirectly for imported commodities. They might also prolong and impede the process of adjustment through price changes and the reallocation of productive resources.

Finally, the Indian representative questioned the desirability of introducing the compensatory principle into social security systems as proposed by the experts, since such a procedure was administratively difficult to apply and might disturb existing systems. The representative of the International Confederation of Christian Trade Unions also objected to the experts' proposal to place social security upon a compensatory basis.

Although the experts' specific proposals for automatic action were rejected, the merits of some kind of emergency action were clearly recognised. As a result, the resolution recommends that Governments should formulate, announce and periodically review "special corrective measures, whether of a discretionary or of an automatic type, to meet emergency unemployment situations that may arise".

### *Anti-Inflation Measures*

Although general agreement with the experts' analysis and proposals was expressed in the Council, some critical observations were made. The United Kingdom representative believed that the experts were too optimistic and that their detailed recommendations were vague and, in part, evasive. It was not clear to him whether they were recommending steps to avoid wage increases or to grant subsidies to offset the increase in cost of living. The United States represent-

ative pointed out that, as in dealing with deflation, it would be difficult, without a full knowledge of the factors giving rise to the inflationary pressures, to tell in advance what measures should be taken to stabilise the price level. In reply to these criticisms, Mr. Kaldor agreed that the recommendations concerning monetary stability and the avoidance of inflation were not as clearcut and as detailed as others. But he believed there would be no insuperable obstacles to pursuing an effective full employment policy concurrently with the preservation of monetary stability.

A more fundamental question was raised by the Belgian representative. He suggested that price stability should not be considered " an economic ideal ", since it was a function of technical progress to bring prices down.

In its recommendations to Governments, the Council did not go into detail concerning anti-inflationary measures. Its resolution proposes merely that they should formulate, announce and periodically review " measures to avoid inflation and to prevent excessive increases in the price level ".

### *Machinery for Full Employment*

The discussion concerning the experts' fifth recommendation, on legislative procedures, administrative organisation and statistical services, turned primarily on the scope of the changes which they had in mind. The Canadian representative suggested that, if the principle of automatic compensatory measures were not adopted, there would be no need for a radical adaptation of such procedures, organisation and services. A somewhat similar view was taken by the United States representative. On the other hand, the representatives of Brazil, France, India, Mexico and the United Kingdom supported the recommendations. Speaking for the group of experts, Dr. Walker added that the whole emphasis of the United Nations and the experts was upon preparedness in case of an emergency, and that it was therefore natural that they should have drawn the attention of the Council and Governments to the need to prepare legislation, if necessary, to meet it. In some cases considerable legislation would be required, but in others it might not.

The resolution finally adopted recommends that each Government should " keep continuously under review the adequacy of its organisational and technical arrangements, including statistical services, required for the formulation and pursuit of economic goals, policies and programmes and the analysis of economic trends ".

### *The Problem of Underemployment*

Although the experts had clearly left the discussion of the employment problems in less developed countries to other organs of the United Nations, representatives of these countries reiterated

their regret that the experts had not seen fit to include such a discussion in their report. There was unanimous agreement, therefore, with the proposal that another group of experts should be appointed to examine this subject. Accordingly, the Council's resolution calls for the appointment of a new group of experts to study the problem of unemployment and underemployment in underdeveloped countries, and notes that further recommendations in regard to national and international measures for full employment in underdeveloped countries will be considered by the Council in the light of the report of this group.

## Recommendations on International Measures

### *Re-establishment of International Equilibrium*

The Council showed its awareness of the magnitude and complexity of the problem of re-establishing international equilibrium. The Chilean representative stated that he was under no illusion that equilibrium in world trade was a simple matter which could be settled by a return by each country to a given percentage of world trade as it existed in previous periods. The Brazilian representative recognised clearly that no new equilibrium of world trade would be satisfactory unless it was a dynamic equilibrium, and he suggested that there might be a short-run tendency towards further disequilibrium on the part of underdeveloped countries which would need to be compensated by other tendencies on the part of the highly industrialised countries. The Indian representative emphasised that a new equilibrium would be acceptable to the less developed countries only if it embraced the concept of increasing industrialisation in the countries producing raw materials and seeking a balance in their economies. The United Kingdom representative maintained that the responsibility for arriving at a new long-term equilibrium lay as much with the surplus countries as with the deficit countries, and that it was a problem which could not easily be solved in the short run.

The Pakistani representative suggested that highly industrialised countries, such as the United States, would need to limit the development of synthetic products; if, owing to the abundance of synthetic substitutes, world markets became closed to countries which produced raw materials, there would be little scope for development, and the existing disequilibrium would merely become intensified. With regard to this concept of equilibrium, the United States representative noted that if it were possible to increase production and raise standards of living by the development of synthetic goods at reasonable prices, consumers would have greater purchasing power for other kinds of expenditure, including expenditures for other imports.

In its final resolution the Council recommended that Governments should intensify their efforts to achieve and maintain equilibrium in their balance of payments, and that such equilibrium should be characterised, so far as possible, by the absence of quantitative restrictions on international trade imposed for balance-of-payments reasons, and of exchange restrictions on current account transactions; by a reduced level of other trade barriers; and by a minimum of discrimination in the application of such trade, monetary or investment restrictions as still exist. The resolution also calls for an analysis of the expected changes in demand for and supply of the principal commodities in international trade in order to facilitate the continuous readjustments necessary for the maintenance of international equilibrium.

The Council was unanimously of the view that, rather than convene a special conference, as proposed by the experts, the existing machinery of the Economic, Employment and Development Commission and of the Council itself should be utilised in defining the requirements of international equilibrium and in formulating governmental targets and programmes for meeting the targets. It accordingly approved the following procedure.

In connection with the semi-annual questionnaire on full employment which is already submitted to Governments, each Government is to be requested to furnish estimates of its balance-of-payments position and information on its related economic policies for the ensuing year and, when appropriate, for a longer period. The information received in response to the questionnaires is to be analysed and studied by the Secretary-General, and transmitted in reports to the Economic and Social Council. Secondly, each Government is to be requested to furnish the Secretary-General with quantitative estimates of the main elements of the balance of international payments that it hopes to attain by 1954. A report analysing and commenting on these estimates is then to be prepared by the Secretary-General for the Economic, Employment and Development Commission. Finally, that Commission, in consultation with the appropriate specialised agencies, is to examine the analyses and reports submitted by the Secretary-General; and upon the basis of such examination, it is expected to call attention to any major problems which appear likely to arise in the light of the information supplied by Governments and to recommend proposals for action to the Economic and Social Council.

### *Stabilisation of International Capital Movements*

There was a wide area of agreement within the Council on the nature of the problem of international capital movements. The need for greater stability in these movements was recognised, and there was general agreement with the United Kingdom representative that "if anything was to be done about the stabilisation of international capital exports, some reliance would have to be placed

on the use of governmental funds and governmental guarantees of private funds ". Finally, there was a widespread feeling, especially among the representatives of the underdeveloped countries, that the past rate of lending by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development was not of sufficient magnitude to meet the basic needs of economic development. It was pointed out that the current rate of Bank lending was between 100 and 150 million dollars a year, whereas, according to Mr. Kaldor, annual capital loans of some 2,000 million were necessary for a satisfactory solution of the problem.

There was much less agreement, however, on the specific types of action which should be taken to achieve the desired stabilisation. Three different approaches to the problem were noted in the course of the debate : a plan such as that proposed by the experts ; expansion of the resources of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development ; and unilateral action by Governments.

The first plan, that presented by the experts, provided that capital-exporting countries should guarantee a certain total annual volume of public and private investment over long periods of time. Its unique feature was that Governments would undertake automatically to offset any decline in private investment by sufficient public investment to maintain the guaranteed level. This plan encountered several objections.

The first major criticism, made by the Danish, United Kingdom and United States representatives, was that a guarantee of a certain level of investment through an automatic compensatory public investment policy would reduce the incentive of borrowing countries to seek private capital through normal channels in the capital-exporting countries. Secondly, the United States representative questioned the practical value of the proposed international investment targets to capital-importing countries, since the latter would not know how much capital could actually be obtained in the long run. Thirdly, the same representative discounted the importance which the proposed counter-cyclical international public investment policy might have in stabilising employment in the United States, since, he said, public investment played only a minor role in the domestic economy. He also suggested that the plan would be made ineffective by the tendency of capital-exporting countries under any automatic scheme to set targets at a low level as a safeguard. Finally, and perhaps most important for the success of the plan (since the United States constitutes the major capital surplus area in the world economy), the United States Government had stated that it was not prepared to enter into a commitment " automatically to provide indefinite amounts of public funds over long periods ".

The second proposal for increasing and stabilising the flow of international capital was to expand the International Bank's financial resources and modify the regulations governing its lending policy. The Indian representative suggested two major changes in Bank policy. First, the Bank should not examine any project by itself alone, but should view each project as part of an over-all develop-

ment plan : a project which might not at first sight appear to be self-liquidating on strict banking principles when taken alone might become financially profitable when considered as part of an over-all programme. Secondly, the Bank should revise its policy of financing only that part of a project which required foreign imports. The Chilean representative especially emphasised the great difficulties which the less developed countries encountered in attempting to finance development expenditures on local materials and labour because of the very small margin of domestic saving. He maintained that the Bank's insistence that local development expenditures should be financed from domestic savings led directly to inflation since the execution of development programmes increased the purchasing power of the population without any proportionate increase in the production of consumer goods.

In this connection Mr. Kaldor pointed out that if British investors in the nineteenth century had limited their investments in the Argentine or British Dominions railway projects to the value of the imported equipment required for building the railways, the projects would have remained a dead letter. The really sound banking principle, he contended, was to cover as much as necessary of the total expenditure on the project. The borrowing country must be prepared to make sacrifices, but not on a scale so great as to defeat its aims.

In reply to these proposals, the representative of the International Bank pointed out that not only would the Bank have no objection to financing a group of specific projects, but on the contrary it favoured such a procedure since it led to better co-ordination. One of the Bank's main difficulties was that requests for funds were not submitted in relation to an over-all development plan, and that as a consequence it was too often obliged to consider isolated projects. Moreover, the Bank believed that projects should be judged not only from the purely commercial standpoint, but also from that of their social usefulness and their direct or indirect effects on a country's economy. It was prepared to consider so-called social overhead projects, provided they were demonstrably productive and linked to projects of an economic nature. There was thus apparently no basic disagreement concerning the proper approach in considering loan applications.

With regard to the second proposal that scarce foreign funds should be used to finance local currency costs, the Bank took a strong opposing stand. It felt that it was in the member countries' interest to conserve their foreign exchange borrowing capacity for the direct and inescapable costs of development programmes. The Bank did not wish to be confronted with a situation in which a country exhausted its borrowing capacity in covering local expenses by borrowing abroad at a time when it could have raised the necessary funds by domestic measures. The Bank representative agreed that if foreign exchange were used to finance local costs of development, this would provide a Government with the means whereby it could import additional consumer or other goods required to

combat inflationary tendencies. But he insisted that it would be a mistake to think that the amount of domestic savings available was something outside the control of the country concerned. If the threat of inflationary pressures accompanied the execution of a development programme, the Government could maintain general control of the situation by increasing the volume of public saving if the level of private saving was inadequate. However, he did concede that the Bank was prepared " in exceptional circumstances " to provide foreign exchange to cover part of the local currency costs of a project, if the country were generally sufficiently creditworthy, if the proposed project were of a high priority, if the local currency costs could not be reasonably met by available domestic resources and finally if it were clearly demonstrated that the execution of the project involved indirect foreign exchange requirements, such as, for example, the importing of essential consumer goods for the purpose of preventing inflationary pressures in the economy.

Far from viewing the present Bank resources as too limited to meet international capital needs, the Bank had been encouraged by its recent borrowing operations to believe that it could mobilise such funds as were needed. In its view the most important limits on the current rate of Bank lending were the limitations on the borrowing capacity and creditworthiness of Governments, especially for dollar loans, and the absence of well drafted and soundly conceived development projects.

The third possible means of stabilising international capital movements considered by the Council was through unilateral action of the capital-exporting countries. The United Kingdom representative believed that it was " asking too much of human nature " to expect a capital-exporting country to hand over to an international institution the administration of a large part of its capital exports. In other words, he thought that the major responsibility for stabilising international capital movements would have to lie primarily in the hands of national agencies.

Similar opinions were expressed by the Canadian, French and Mexican representatives, the general view being that any kind of concerted international action would require the unanimous consent of all countries, especially the lending countries. In the present situation, the most fruitful course would be to continue studying the problem and possible alternative solutions.

In its final resolution the Council arrived at a compromise of the conflicting points of view. First of all it recommended Governments to: " *(a)* achieve and maintain, to the extent feasible, a high level and regular rate of flow of international investment capital for development purposes; *(b)* strive to prevent lapses in the flow of international investment resulting from or associated with economic recessions; and *(c)* continue to co-operate in efforts to achieve these results by both national and international measures ".

Secondly, it urged the International Bank to utilise, in case of recession, all opportunities of increasing its resources in order to

expand the volume of its lending, *inter alia*, by making fullest use of its borrowing capacity. Finally, it requested the Secretary-General to appoint a group of experts to prepare, after seeking the views of the International Monetary Fund and the Bank, a report formulating and analysing alternative practical ways of dealing with the problem of reducing the international impact of recessions that may arise.

### *Stabilisation of Short-Term Trade Fluctuations*

As in the case of international capital movements, there was a consensus of opinion on the need for stabilisation in international trading relationships. There was also general agreement that, so far as possible, Governments should make all efforts to minimise fluctuations in international trade through stockpiling, although it was generally agreed that such a measure was of limited value in the face of serious declines in international trade. Furthermore, there was general recognition of a broad moral obligation on the part of each Government to maintain the supply of its currency to the outside world if it were undergoing a domestic depression.

There was no agreement, however, concerning the action that should be taken to achieve the desired stabilisation. Three alternatives were before the Council: first, an automatic stabilisation plan such as that proposed by the experts; secondly, an increase in the financial resources of the International Monetary Fund; and thirdly, unilateral action by Governments.

The outstanding feature of the experts' plan was that it provided assurance to all Governments that they would have the necessary currency to maintain their normal imports irrespective of the success which other countries achieved in maintaining full employment. Several major criticisms of the plan were voiced. The representative of the International Monetary Fund maintained that the provision of currency could not take place as rapidly and automatically as the experts had suggested. In carrying out the proposed procedure, the Fund would have to have very full and accurate data, which might be difficult to obtain. He also emphasised, along with the Danish and United States representatives, the extreme complexity of the question of how far a drop in imports was attributable to a decrease in effective domestic demand.

Two further objections were raised on behalf of the Fund. In the first place, it envisaged difficulties in administering two separate funds, namely, one, as proposed by the experts in which the Fund would be merely a go-between acting in accordance with a specific scheme; and the other, as called for in its present operation, in which the Fund had ownership of the deposits of the member countries. At times it would be virtually impossible to canalise the two currents of reserves on different principles. The Fund also objected to the automatic feature of the plan on the grounds that it was only reasonable to ask deficit countries for a strict assurance that

they were adopting a sound monetary policy, particularly in taking steps against domestic inflation.

The United States representative feared that the introduction of such a plan in circumstances where a fundamental balance-of-payments disequilibrium still existed in many countries would probably serve to aggravate that disequilibrium, since it would enable deficit countries with inconvertible currencies to continue importing goods without making the readjustments required for balancing their economy and trade.

Finally, the United Kingdom representative suggested that the experts' plan had a serious technical difficulty in that it did not cover short-term capital movements. He pointed out that in spite of the exchange controls in effect in 1949, a very large short-term capital movement took place owing to variations in the length of time taken to make payment for current transactions, and also in a number of other ways which it was impossible for exchange controls to prevent. In reply to this criticism, Dr. Walker stated that the problem of short-term capital had been deliberately excluded from the scheme, since it was believed that the inclusion of such lending would strain it too far. It was the experts' view that short-term capital movements could be dealt with in other ways.

The second alternative, that of enlarging the resources of the International Monetary Fund, was favoured by the Danish and United States representatives. The representative of the Fund itself suggested that the " scarce currency " clause in its Articles of Agreement guarded against the contingency which the experts feared, namely, the reduction of imports as a result of depression in one of the main importing countries. In such a circumstance the Fund might inform its member sthat the currency of the country in question was getting short and might ask the country to lend its currency to the Fund. The Fund concluded, therefore, that if its resources were to be increased, the " normal policy and criteria " of the Fund might be applied just as easily as within the framework of its existing resources.

Although the French representative was not ready to accept the automatic provisions of the experts' plan, he was likewise not satisfied with the present rules and regulations governing the Fund's operations. First, questioning had brought out the reply that the Fund would intervene in the case contemplated by the experts only when a pre-established equilibrium had been disturbed by a cyclical depression. If the Fund intended to deal with cyclical fluctuations only in cases where a pre-established equilibrium existed, the French representative thought that this principle might lead to virtual inactivity, since in real life it was possible to have cyclical disequilibrium superimposed upon chronic disequilibrium. Secondly, it had also been brought out by questioning that, although the Fund would be perfectly willing to assist countries suffering from cyclical depression, each individual case would have to be considered in the light of its own special circumstances.

Further queries were raised by Mr. Kaldor concerning the adequacy of the present structure of the Fund to meet the requirements of international trade stabilisation. Any proposal that its resources should be enlarged would encounter the same objection as that raised in connection with the Bank, namely, that its dollar resources were by no means exhausted. Therefore, it would hardly seem pertinent to increase the Fund's resources except in conjunction with such wider reforms as would make it a more effective instrument for achieving the aims of international monetary stabilisation. In his view, the Fund's operations must be made far more automatic than they were at present. This was not intended as a criticism of the management of the Fund, but merely evidence of the fact that the Fund had in the course of negotiations preliminary to the Bretton Woods Agreement become an institution different from what it had been intended to be. As originally conceived, the Fund was to act, not as a lending institution, but as a kind of international central bank representing a considerable net addition to international currency reserves, equivalent to gold reserves.

The third possible alternative, suggested by the United Kingdom representative, was to rely on the voluntary action of national Governments. It received little consideration in the Council.

The Council concluded that it was not possible at its Eleventh Session to formulate definitive proposals concerning the stabilisation of international capital movements and trade. Instead, it first adopted a series of principles which Governments should try to follow, recommending that they should : " *(a)* seek to avoid, in their economic policies and programmes, measures which would be likely to have seriously adverse effects on the balance of payments or employment levels of other countries ; *(b)* in the event of a domestic recession, adopt, to the extent feasible, measures to offset the adverse effects of such recession on the balance of payments or employment levels of other countries ; and *(c)* continue to co-operate in investigating ways and means for preventing domestic recession from spreading to other countries ".

Secondly, the Council urged the Fund to make its resources available to members to meet needs arising from economic recessions as fully and readily as its Articles of Agreement permit. Finally, as noted at the end of the preceding section of this article, it requested the Secretary-General to appoint a group of experts to prepare, after seeking the views of the Fund and the Bank, a report formulating and analysing alternative practical ways of dealing with the problem of reducing the international impact of recessions that might arise.

Considerable interest was expressed in the Council, particularly by the French and Pakistani representatives, concerning the importance of encouraging mobility of labour on an international scale, and the final resolution refers specifically to the need to promote international migration. Similarly, representatives of Australia, of the Food and Agriculture Organisation and of the International Federation of Agricultural Producers maintained that insufficient attention

had been given by the experts to international measures for the stabilisation of primary product prices, but no reference to such measures is included in the Council's resolution.

### *A Convention for Full Employment*

The Economic and Social Council had before it, during its discussions on full employment, a copy of the resolution on action against unemployment adopted by the 33rd Session of the International Labour Conference and of the discussions in the Conference which led to its adoption.[1] This resolution had suggested to Governments, among other things, the possibility of considering the advantages of an international labour Convention on full employment. In a statement before the Economic and Social Council, the I.L.O. representative suggested that one point in such a Convention might be the assumption by Governments of a formal obligation to accept full employment as a primary objective of economic and social policy. Another point might be the assumption of an obligation to establish or designate appropriate national machinery which would be responsible for studying continuously the evolution of the employment situation and for making recommendations concerning the action to be taken to maintain full employment.

The representative of the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions suggested a more ambitious international convention or agreement on full employment. He proposed that each Government should commit itself to: (1) the adoption and announcement of full employment targets; (2) the adoption of economic, financial and social policies to secure prompt and effective implementation of its full employment pledge; (3) co-operation to attain international full employment targets; (4) the provision of all necessary information about economic conditions and full employment measures; (5) co-operation under the guidance of the United Nations Secretariat and the International Labour Office to prepare an internationally co-ordinated system of economic statistics; and (6) provision for adequate consultation with, and representation of, free trade unions in regard to all measures and institutions designed to implement the convention or agreement.

The United Kingdom delegation presented a more limited proposal for an international convention. It suggested that Governments should conclude an agreement on measures to prevent the spread of depression from one country to others by preventing a decline in the aggregate supply of each Government's currency to the rest of the world, and on measures to maintain a steady flow of capital for development purposes. The United States repretative disagreed with this proposal on the grounds that, because of

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. LXII, Nos. 3-4, September-October 1950: " The Thirty-third Session of the International Labour Conference: Geneva, June-July 1950 ", pp. 229-231. For the full text of the resolution, see *Industry and Labour*, Vol. IV, No. 3, 1 August 1950, pp. 135-138.

the complexity of the problem, it would not be possible to confine international discussions to a narrow range, as had been shown by the lengthy efforts needed to draft the Havana Charter.

The resolution adopted by the Council contains no recommendation on these lines.

### Resolution on Full Employment

*(Adopted on 15 August 1950)*

The Economic and Social Council,

Having in mind the obligations of Members of the United Nations under Articles 55 and 56 of the Charter to take joint and separate action to promote higher standards of living, full employment and conditions of economic and social progress and development,

Having considered the experts' report on *National and International Measures for Full Employment*, the report of the Economic and Employment Commission (fifth session), and the views of various specialised agencies and non-governmental organisations,

Having noted from the replies of Governments to the questionnaires on employment issued by the Secretary-General under Council resolution 221 E (IX)[1], that many countries have succeeded in maintaining satisfactory levels of employment,

Having regard to the fact that, in some predominantly agricultural countries, figures for unemployment and underemployment may not be easily ascertainable and full employment goals may, if related only to industrial labour, lead to misleading conclusions, and that, consequently, it may not be possible for such countries to implement certain provisions of this resolution,

Bearing in mind that a new group of experts will be appointed, as provided for in paragraph 22 below, for the purpose of studying the problem of unemployment and underemployment in underdeveloped countries, and that further recommendations in regard to national and international measures for full employment in underdeveloped countries will be considered by the Council in the light of the report of this group of experts,

Recognising that Governments can achieve and maintain full and productive employment in an expanding world economy under conditions ensuring fundamental political and economic freedoms to the individual, and being aware of the determination of peoples and Governments to achieve and maintain such full and productive employment,

Concerned with the need for continuing action by Member Governments, and by the organs and specialised agencies of the United Nations to implement the obligation contained in the Charter with respect to full employment, including the reduction of unemployment and underemployment in the less developed countries, and

Bearing in mind the close relationship, in a free and expanding world economy, between high and stable levels of domestic employment, international capital movements, and imports and exports,

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[1] The resolution of 11 August 1949 in pursuance of which the report of the group of experts was prepared.

A. WITH THE OBJECT OF ENSURING REGULAR SYSTEMATIC CONSIDERATION OF EMPLOYMENT PROBLEMS BY THE COUNCIL

1. Decides to place on the Council agenda once each year, beginning in 1951, for consideration in the light of economic trends, the problem of achieving and maintaining full employment with progressively improving levels of production, trade and consumption, and maintenance of or progress towards the achievement of equilibrium in balances of payments;

B. WITH THE OBJECT OF ENCOURAGING THE ADOPTION OF EFFECTIVE DOMESTIC FULL EMPLOYMENT POLICIES

2. Recommends that each Government:

*(a)* publish annually a statement of its economic objectives for the ensuing year or for such longer period as may be appropriate, making special reference to the purposes set out in Articles 55 and 56 of the United Nations Charter, and being accompanied, wherever practicable, by a statement of quantitative goals or forecasts relating to employment, production, consumption, investment or such other pertinent measurable economic factors as may be significant indicators of the trends of its economy; and

*(b)* publish as soon and as precisely as is practicable the standard by which it defines the meaning of full employment as a continuing objective of policy, such standard being expressed, wherever possible, in terms either of employment percentages or of absolute numbers of unemployed or in ranges of such percentages or numbers; and thereafter publish such revised standard as may become necessary from time to time;

3. Recommends that each Government formulate, announce, and periodically review, in the light of current and foreseeable economic trends, the policies, programmes and techniques which it intends to pursue for the purpose of achieving such objectives, goals and standard as it may set for itself under paragraph 2 above, with particular reference to:

*(a)* measures, such as the adaptation of fiscal, credit, monetary, investment, wage and price policies, to promote steady economic expansion;

*(b)* measures to combat recessionary tendencies, such as measures to influence the volume of investment, to increase the flexibility of budget and fiscal policies, and to prevent undue fluctuations in the incomes of primary producers;

*(c)* special corrective measures, whether of a discretionary or of an automatic type, to meet emergency unemployment situations that may arise;

*(d)* measures to avoid inflation and to prevent excessive increases in the price level; and

*(e)* measures to promote the geographic and occupational mobility of labour;

4. Recommends that each Government keep continuously under review the adequacy of its organisational and technical arrangements, including statistical services, required for the formulation and pursuit of economic goals, policies and programmes and the analysis of economic trends;

5. Recommends that, in connection with the information required by the Secretary-General under Council resolution 221 E (IX), each Government furnish him, upon request, with full information concerning

economic trends, the full employment standard, domestic economic objectives and—where appropriate—goals or forecasts, and domestic policies and programmes, as referred to in paragraphs 2 and 3 above;

6. Invites the International Labour Organisation to take all feasible further steps towards the practical implementation of the recommendations of the Sixth International Conference of Labour Statisticians in order to facilitate international comparability of employment and unemployment data with special reference to their use in the formulation of full employment standards and annual employment goals, policies and programmes;

7. Requests the Secretary-General:

*(a)* to amend the questionnaires being issued under Council resolution 221 E (IX) so as to include the items referred to in paragraph 5 above, and to send to Governments the first issue of the amended questionnaire as soon as possible;

*(b)* to assemble and analyse the reports submitted by Governments in response to this questionnaire so as to facilitate the task of the Economic, Employment and Development Commission as set out in paragraph 8 below; and in particular to analyse the statistical basis of the full employment standards published under subparagraph 2 *(b)* above; and

*(c)* to transmit the reports and analyses prepared under *(b)* above, together with such special studies as he may have prepared, to the Economic, Employment and Development Commission; and

8. Requests the Economic, Employment and Development Commission, in consultation with the representatives of the appropriate specialised agencies, to examine the reports, analyses and studies transmitted to it by the Secretary-General under subparagraph 7 *(c)* above in the light of current and foreseeable economic trends and with reference to their possible effects on the world economic situation, for the purpose of:

*(a)* calling attention to the repercussions of the goals, policies and programmes of the various Governments upon the economic situation of other countries; and

*(b)* formulating significant problems of international concern that may arise for consideration by the Council and recommending proposals for action by the Council;

C. WITH THE OBJECT OF ENCOURAGING EFFECTIVE INTERNATIONAL FULL EMPLOYMENT POLICIES

I

9. Recommends that each Government intensify its efforts, while pursuing its employment and other domestic goals, to achieve and maintain equilibrium in its balance of payments; such equilibrium should be at the highest possible level of mutually beneficial trade and should be characterised, *inter alia*, by:

*(a)* conditions of trade involving, along the lines envisaged in the relevant international agreements: (i) the absence of quantitative restrictions on international trade imposed for balance-of-payments reasons and of exchange restrictions on current account transactions (as defined in the Articles of Agreement of the International Monetary Fund), (ii) a reduced

level of other trade barriers, and (iii) a minimum of discrimination in the application of such trade, monetary or investment restrictions as may still exist;

*(b)* a level of reserves of convertible currencies and gold which would be sufficient to enable a country to meet normal fluctuations in its receipts of foreign exchange; and

*(c)* an increased and stable flow of international investment funds;

10. Recommends that each Government furnish the Secretary-General, upon his request, in connection with its replies to the questionnaires being issued under Council resolution 221 E (IX) with estimates of its balance-of-payments position, and information on its related economic policies for the ensuing year and, when appropriate, for a longer period;

11. Recommends that each Government furnish the Secretary-General within six months after receipt of the special questionnaire referred to in subparagraph 13 *(a)* below with quantitative estimates of the main elements of the balance of international payments that it hopes to attain by 1954, and a classification of its estimated trade by major commodities or groups of commodities which are important in its foreign trade, making clear to what extent the conditions set forth in paragraph 9 above are assumed to have been realised;

12. Requests the Secretary-General:

*(a)* to amend the questionnaires being issued under Council resolution 221 E (IX) so as to cover the items referred to in paragraph 10 above;

*(b)* to assemble and analyse the reports submitted by Governments under paragraph 10 above so as to facilitate the task of the Economic, Employment and Development Commission as set out in paragraph 14 below;

*(c)* to continue to make special studies concerning the international aspects of the full employment problem; and

*(d)* to transmit the reports, analyses and studies prepared under subparagraphs *(b)* and *(c)* above to the Economic, Employment and Development Commission;

13. Requests the Secretary-General:

*(a)* to prepare, with the advice of suitable experts, and to issue to Governments as soon as conveniently possible, a special questionnaire for the purpose set out in paragraph 11 above, and, in carrying out this task, to take full account of similar work being undertaken by other international organisations in such a way as to avoid laying any unnecessary burden on Governments;

*(b)* to appoint a group of three independent experts, and to furnish them with such assistance as may be necessary to enable them to submit, on their own responsibility, to the Economic, Employment and Development Commission a report analysing and commenting on the replies to the questionnaires received from Governments with a view to assisting the Commission to carry out the task assigned to it under paragraph 14 below;

*(c)* to undertake and, if practicable, to annex to the report referred to in *(b)* above an analysis of the changes in demand for and supply of the principal commodities in international trade which might be expected to occur in the light of the data supplied by Governments under paragraph 11 above and other relevant material; and

14. Requests the Economic, Employment and Development Commission, in consultation with representatives of the appropriate specialised agencies, to examine the reports, analyses and studies submitted to it under subparagraphs 12 *(d)*, 13 *(b)* and 13 *(c)* above, in the light of current and foreseeable economic trends and with reference to their possible effects on the world economic situation, for the purpose of :

*(a)* calling attention to any major problems which appear likely to arise in the light of the information supplied by Governments regarding international transactions, policies and programmes ;

*(b)* recommending proposals with respect to international policies and programmes for Council consideration and action ; and

*(c)* enabling the Council at its fourteenth session to consider the report prepared under subparagraph 13 *(b)* above, together with the Commission's comments and recommendations ;

II

15. Recommends that Governments :

*(a)* achieve and maintain, to the extent feasible, a high level and regular rate of flow of international investment capital for development purposes ;

*(b)* strive to prevent lapses in the flow of international investment resulting from or associated with economic recessions ; and

*(c)* continue to co-operate in efforts to achieve these results by both national and international measures ;

16. Recommends that Governments :

*(a)* seek to avoid, in their economic policies and programmes, measures which would be likely to have seriously adverse effects on the balance of payments or employment levels of other countries ;

*(b)* in the event of a domestic recession, adopt, to the extent feasible, measures to offset the adverse effects of such recession on the balance of payments or employment levels of other countries ; and

*(c)* continue to co-operate in investigating ways and means for preventing domestic recession from spreading to other countries ;

17. Urges the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, while achieving and maintaining in ordinary times a high level and steady rate of flow of international investments for economic development, to utilise in case of recession, all practicable opportunities of increasing its resources, in order to expend the volume of its lending, *inter alia*, by making fullest use of its borrowing capacity ;

18. Urges the International Monetary Fund to make its resources available to its members to meet needs arising from economic recessions as fully and readily as its Articles of Agreement permit ;

19. Requests the Secretary-General to appoint a group of three to five experts to make technical studies and, after seeking the views of the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, to prepare a report in accordance with the objective of paragraphs 15 and 16 above, formulating and analysing alternative practical ways of dealing with the problem of reducing the international impact of recessions that may arise, the report to be submitted to the Secretary-General and issued on the responsibility of the expert group ;

20. Requests the Economic, Employment and Development Commission to study the report prepared under paragraph 19 above and to make recommendations thereon to the Council at its fourteenth session ; and

21. Recommends that the Governments, the specialised agencies concerned and the Secretary-General pursue the action already undertaken in the field of migration, taking into consideration the importance of facilitating the international mobility of labour for the solution of the problems of full employment ;

D. WITH THE OBJECT OF FACILITATING THE COUNCIL'S FURTHER CONSIDERATION OF THE PROBLEM OF UNEMPLOYMENT, PARTICULARLY IN THE LESS DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

22. Requests the Secretary-General to appoint a small group of experts to prepare, in the light of the current world economic situation and of the requirements of economic development, a report on unemployment and underemployment in underdeveloped countries, and the national and international measures required to reduce such unemployment and underemployment, the report to be issued on the responsibility of the expert group ; to give every assistance to the group of experts in the preparation of this report and, in particular, keep the group informed of work already done or currently being undertaken in this field by the United Nations and the specialised agencies, and to transmit the report to Member Governments ; and

23. Requests the Economic, Employment and Development Commission to examine the report prepared by the group of experts and to submit to the Council, at an early session, any comments and recommendations for action which seem to it appropriate ; and

E. WITH THE OBJECT OF FACILITATING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THIS RESOLUTION

24. Recommends that the Secretary-General and the appropriate specialised agencies provide, within their capacities, technical assistance to Governments, upon their request, for the purpose of carrying out this resolution ; and

25. Requests the Secretary-General :

*(a)* in carrying out the tasks under paragraphs 7, 12 and 13 above to co-operate and consult with the specialised agencies concerned and other appropriate bodies in order to avoid duplication ; and

*(b)* to take all appropriate measures to ensure that action under this resolution is initiated without delay.

# Payment by Results in the Building Industry

*Evidence of the growing importance attached to systems of payment by results in the construction industry may be found in the fact that they formed one of the items on the agenda of the annual General Meeting of the International Federation of Building and Public Works held at Venice in September 1950.*[1] *The subject is also one to which the Building, Civil Engineering and Public Works Committee of the I.L.O. has paid some attention, and it is touched on briefly in the* General Report *prepared for the forthcoming Third Session of the Committee (Geneva, February 1951).*[2]

*In view of the suggestion that these systems tend to raise productivity—a matter of particular urgency in the building industry in virtually every country—it may be of interest to review the experience already gained in this field. Information is accordingly given in the following pages on the extent to which the systems are applied, on the nature of the systems in operation in various countries and on the results obtained.*[3]

## Prevalence of Systems of Payment by Results

Systems of payment by results are known to be applied in the building industry of a number of European countries. They are particularly widespread in Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Poland and the Scandinavian countries; are fairly general in Finland, Greece, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom; and are found to a small extent in France, Germany, Italy and Switzerland.

On the other hand, in Australia, Belgium, Canada, New Zealand, the Union of South Africa and the United States, building workers are generally paid by the hour. A study of the prevalence of incentive pay in the United States in 1945 and 1946 found no such schemes

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[1] Cf. International Labour Office: *Industry and Labour*, Vol. IV, No. 12, 15 December 1950, pp. 502-504.

[2] The whole subject of payment by results is to be discussed by a meeting of experts convened by the I.L.O. at Geneva in April 1951.

[3] In the preparation of this survey, considerable use has been made of the reports submitted by the affiliated federations to the aforementioned meeting of the International Federation of Building and Public Works (which was attended by a representative of the I.L.O.). Other sources are cited in the course of the article.

in operation in the construction industry.[1] An examination of several collective agreements for the Canadian building industry shows that piece work is not customary.

In some countries piece work is specifically prohibited. For example, in Australia clause 15 of the New South Wales arbitration award governing the conditions of work of carpenters, joiners and bricklayers prohibits piece work; and the South African industrial council agreement for the building and monumental masonry industries in Transvaal, dated 23 April 1948, which is typical of the various industrial council agreements for these industries, provides that the—

> . . . giving out by employers or the performance by employees of work on a piece-work basis is prohibited, or any system of payment of labour by which earnings of an employee are based or calculated partly or wholly upon quantity or measurement of the work performed. The provisions of this clause shall apply, notwithstanding the fact that the employee may supply a small quantity of the material or plant required.

Clause 20 of the New Zealand award for builders, labourers, quarry workers, tunnellers and general labourers dated 8 October 1948 (not applicable in Otago) provides that " workers covered by this award shall be prohibited from working piece work except in the case of mutual agreement between the workers' union and the employers' union ".

## Description of Existing Systems

There are three main types of systems of payment by results in operation in various countries: piece-work systems; bonus systems; and contract systems. Sometimes, more than one system will be in use, depending on the nature of the work. Under the contract system, which is applied more particularly in Bulgaria and the Scandinavian countries, workers are guaranteed specified rates of wages for every hour worked, but are paid according to the amount of work done. The piece rates for the different operations are set out in detailed lists, which in the Scandinavian countries are the subject of collective bargaining, and in Bulgaria of legislation. The procedure followed in the elaboration and application of the list for house-building in Sweden, which contains some 10,000 different rates and regulations, is typical of that in the other North European countries and to some extent in the Netherlands. Hence, in the

[1] Cf. " Incentive Pay in American Industry 1945/1946 ", in *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1947, pp. 535-538. For rates of pay and annual earnings of different categories of building workers in the United States, see U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin No. 951: *Union Wages and Hours in the Building Trades, 1 July 1948* (Washington D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1949), p. 18; and Anglo-American Council on Productivity: *Productivity Team Report on Building* (London, May 1950), pp. 151-152.

following review of the systems in each country, no separate reference is made to Denmark, Finland, the Netherlands or Norway.

### *Bulgaria*

The regulations governing payment by results in the Bulgarian building industry were laid down in a resolution of the Council of Ministers of 24 February 1947, as amended on 24 July 1947, and in decisions of the State Planning Commission submitted to the Council on 3 January 1948.[1] They provide for three systems: payment by percentage, by the piece and by the "norm" or standard; the third is to be adopted wherever possible.

*Payment by percentage.* The worker is paid either a percentage of the total income of the undertaking in question, calculated on the value of output (co-operative undertakings), or a percentage of the value of output.

*Piece-work payment.* In this system payment is made by the piece produced only in the case of the production of finished goods, or it may be made for every unit produced.

*Payment by the norm.* Payment is made for a fixed number of units, to be produced in a fixed period, generally a working day. A worker who produces more than this norm is remunerated according to special regulations concerning bonuses.

### *Czechoslovakia*

The systems of wage payment for workers in the Czechoslovak building industry are specified in a Decree of the Minister of Social Welfare dated 24 March 1947 [2], which provides that all work must, so far as its nature allows, be done under the piece-work system; in other cases payment is by time.

For the preparation of ground and similar work, the Decree specifies the rates to be paid for the performance of various operations. The rates vary according to the type of soil. Those payable for digging trenches to the depth of 1 metre and loading on wheelbarrows thus range from 14 to 45 Czech crowns, according to category, with a supplement for every further metre of depth ranging from 9 to 14 crowns. In the case of sluiceways, canals, irrigation ditches, etc., the rate for digging ditches 80 centimetres wide to a depth of 1 metre ranges from 16 to 85 crowns; for every further metre of depth, supplements are paid, at an increasing rate for each metre.

Similarly, rates per unit of work done are laid down in detail for the different masonry, interior plastering and carpentry operations, separate rates being fixed for skilled and for unskilled workers.

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[1] Cf. *Drzhaven Vestnik* (Sofia), No. 56, 11 March 1947, and No. 175, 31 July 1947.

[2] Cf. *Sbírka Zákonů a Nařízení Republiky Československé* (Prague), No. 54, 15 April 1949.

### *France*

Systems of payment by results have been increasingly applied in the French building industry in recent years. Although the methods employed vary from one undertaking to another, four main types can be distinguished: *(a)* bonus on completion of job; *(b)* payment by the task; *(c)* site bonus; and *(d)* the proportional wage.

*Bonus on completion of job.* When certain undertakings consider that output on a particular site, or part of a site, has been satisfactory, it is their practice to grant the workers a bonus, the amount of which has either been agreed in advance (payment being subject to a sufficiently rapid execution of the work) or is determined with reference to the results obtained.

*Payment by the task.* In this type, which has been long in use, the management fixes in advance, in agreement with the workers, the sum they will receive for completing the job. This price is paid, whatever the time spent on the work, it being agreed, however, that no worker will receive a sum less than his basic hourly rate multiplied by the number of hours worked.

*Site bonus.* This system may take three main forms. The first consists in fixing in advance the number of hours considered as normal for the completion of the job, and in paying the workers part of any savings made if the work is done more rapidly. In the second, the undertaking estimates in advance its expenses and receipts in respect of the job; once the job is completed, any saving on the anticipated costs is shared between the undertaking and the workers in a proportion agreed on beforehand. Lastly, the cost of the job may be worked out, generally on the basis of the price agreed with the customer. Once the work is completed, a survey is made in agreement with the general foreman and a bonus is paid to the workers after comparing the calculated costs with the total wages paid out.

Whichever scheme is adopted, the method of distributing the bonus among the workers varies with the undertaking. In some cases, the distribution is made according to proportions fixed beforehand by the parties. In others, on the contrary, it is calculated in proportion to the workers' hourly rates and hours worked. Sometimes the whole and sometimes only a percentage (fixed arbitrarily by the management) of the savings are distributed as a bonus. In many undertakings the senior executives receive a share of the bonus. Often a part of the bonus is put into a reserve fund.

*Proportional wage.* In contrast to the above-mentioned systems, that of the proportional wage depends, in general, on the results for the undertaking as a whole, and not for a single site. The basis for the proportional wage is derived from the ratio of the total wage bill

to the turnover of the undertaking over a period of several years preceding the application of the system. Once the system is introduced, this ratio is calculated for each new period (in general, three months), and when it falls below the normal or average percentage that has been adopted as a basis for the scheme, the difference between the amount of wages corresponding to this percentage and that of the wages actually paid out constitutes the wage bonus *(sursalaire)* to be shared among the workers.

The wage bonus is generally divided into three parts. The greater part is immediately shared among the workers, while a smaller part is paid into a joint fund for the benefit of the workers. The rest is paid into a reserve, which covers the deficits that may arise in a period when the total wages paid out exceed the amount of wages corresponding to the basic percentage.[1]

### *Germany*

Payment by results is not very widely practised in the German building industry. It is only used on a large scale for certain special work (*e.g.*, plastering) in large cities such as Berlin, Hamburg, Hanover and Munich. The collective agreement of 17 April 1950 which at present governs conditions in the building trades in Western Germany merely regulates the method of payment by results. The relevant clause reads as follows :

> For work paid for according to results, a sum must be paid weekly which may not be less than the gross scheduled rates. The final statement must be made up not later than a fortnight after the job is finished. Should the work last several months, interim payments must be made every month.

The usual method is to draw up an agreement—generally in writing—for a team of workers of the same category (mason, carpenter, plasterer, ferro-concrete worker, etc.) and covering a clearly defined job. The agreement also mentions accessory work (*e.g.*, scaffolding, conveying materials, machine operators, etc.), stating whether it is included in the price or paid separately. The teams generally appoint a leader, who is authorised by the workers to sign the agreement and check measurements and payments.

Agreements of this kind are not made in the case of single workers, except for special small jobs, when the basis is similar.

In public works undertakings, payment by results is seldom adopted, for the progress of the work depends on the output of the machines (mechanical shovels, concrete mixers, etc.) and not on the workers.

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[1] A system similar to that of the proportional wage, known as the " output fund " system, is applied in a few undertakings.

### *Greece*

The following systems of payment by results have been tried and put into operation in Greece :

*Payment by the piece or work unit.* This system has been successfully applied in industry in the case of products which, owing to their nature, are made in separate parts ; the payment is settled in advance for each team of skilled or semi-skilled workers and divided among them. In the construction industry the system has been applied, and is still in force, for earthwork, concrete, transport of materials, etc.

*Time schemes.* In this case, should the output exceed the predetermined normal output for eight hours' work, bonuses are distributed to the team of workers employed during the fixed time.

This system has been found successful more particularly when the job is carried out by a subcontractor, who may be a foreman or superintendent. The work done is evaluated and the pay fixed according to output, either for the whole of the job, or for completed parts or work units.

*Points system.* In this case, the bonuses are distributed equally between all the workers, or in proportion to their wages.

*Bonus on completion of job.* These bonuses are fixed by the contractor on completion of the job, according to the results obtained.

### *Italy*

In Italy payment by time is more widespread than payment by results. One of the systems of payment by results in force is somewhat similar to that applied in Sweden. The system which is in use in the United Kingdom has also been applied in various cases in Italy. Under a new collective agreement for the building and allied trades, the contractor must pay the worker a wage equivalent to at least 109 per cent. of the minimum basic wage in every case where a system of payment of results is applied.

### *Poland*

Provisions for the application of a piece-work system and a bonus system in the Polish building industry are laid down in the collective agreement for the industry dated 7 May 1949.

Under the piece-work system, the workers are required to produce a minimum output in a specified period. The bonus system is applied only in cases where conditions prevent the application of piece work. The rates of bonus amount to 40 per cent. of the daily wages specified in the agreement for eight different categories of

workers. The authorities responsible for fixing wages and categories, that is to say, the qualifications committee of the works council for the undertaking in question and the trade unions concerned, estimate the basic rates of output for the various categories of workers according to the list of standards and prices for units of production in the building industry specified in the collective agreement.

*Sweden*

As mentioned above, the contract system of payment by results is in general use in the Swedish housebuilding industry. There are two special piece-rate lists (which also include regulations governing the measuring of work), one for Stockholm and one for the remainder of the country. They form part of the collective agreements between the Federation of Swedish Building Employers on the one hand and the central organisations of building workers on the other. Such agreements are generally made for one year, with automatic extension year by year unless notice is given three months before the expiry date. It has happened that the same piece rates have remained unaltered for eight years, but recently revisions have been made practically every year.

Since the lists are intended to be applicable for all types of building work, the rates have had to be fixed in great detail and can in their turn be divided into basic rates and supplements. There is, for instance, a basic hourly rate for plastering with lime mortar on a brick wall, with special supplements for corners and angles, for higher floors than normal, for plastering window-splays, for fillisters, for thicker plaster than normal, etc.

Piece work is carried out by joint contract with seven main groups of workers, namely : bricklayers and plasterers ; carpenters and joiners ; concrete workers ; reinforcers ; road blasters and excavator operators ; bricklayers' labourers ; and general labourers. Each group on a particular site operates jointly, and the earnings are shared among the members of the group equally per hour worked.

The work is measured at intervals according to the stage reached. The intervals may be considerable on large projects, but do not exceed three months. During the interval the workers receive an advance corresponding to the hourly rate fixed by the agreement. After the quantity survey has been made, wages are calculated according to the piece-rate list, the advance payment is deducted from the sum so obtained, and the balance, known as the surplus, is paid out.

In cases where work has to be done that cannot be rated, the workers are paid by the hour. Provision is made, however, for the conclusion of special local agreements between the local organisations of employers and workers (not between employer and worker direct) to fix rates for a particular job at a particular site, as a rule, for large

projects not covered by the piece-rate lists. These " free piece-work contracts " are becoming more general, but cannot altogether eliminate the need for payment by the hour in certain cases. A man's working time is therefore divided into his time employed on piece work and other time, which is called day work and is paid by the hour. Day work occurs, for instance, when a worker is held up for various reasons, such as waiting for materials, or when he considers that he is entitled to extra pay because of the difficult circumstances in which the piece work is being performed, such as bad weather. A record is kept for each worker showing the number of his hours on piece work and on day work, respectively.

The system may be illustrated by the figures for a Stockholm bricklaying job carried out during the period 12 February to 26 May 1950. The total number of hours spent on the job was 13,139, namely, 11,567.5 on piece work and 1,571.5 on day work. The basic hourly wage was 2.09 crowns. The payment for piece work according to the quantity survey amounted to 57,447.96 crowns, or an average of 4.97 crowns an hour. The surplus payable at the end of the job—57,447.96 crowns less the hourly rate for 11,567.5 hours, or 24,129.25 crowns—was thus 33,318.71 crowns.

The total earnings of the workers during the period were 60,742.31 crowns (57,447.96 crowns on piece work+3,294.35 crowns on day work), giving an average of 4.62 crowns per hour. In addition, however, a cost-of-living allowance of 0.52 crowns per hour is paid, bringing the total earnings per hour up to 5.12 crowns. Thus the earnings on this system of payment by results exceeded the basic hourly rate by nearly 140 per cent.

### *Switzerland*

Systems of payment by results are not applied to any great extent in Switzerland. For certain operations in the building industry and on some public works, piece rates are specified. For example, in masonry work on brick walls there are agreed rates for each square unit laid or for each cubic unit of finished wall. Floor layers are paid at a rate per square unit laid. On certain public works, the workers employed on various roadbuilding jobs are paid up to 50 per cent. of the sum corresponding to the difference between their actual output and a standard output.

### *United Kingdom*

In the United Kingdom systems of payment by results have been in operation for many years, especially in the civil engineering industry. Thus the first working rule agreement made when the conciliation board for civil engineering construction was constituted in 1920 contained a provision on the subject, and such a provision has been included in all subsequent agreements. Rule 4 of the present working rule agreement provides as follows :

It shall be open to employers and employed on any job to agree bonus on output for any operation or operations on that particular job, which bonus shall be payable in addition to the ordinary rate.

On the other hand, in the building industry [1] the working rule agreement made no provision for the application of a system of payment by results, and in the local rules of the northern region (Northumberland and Durham) and of the Manchester area and in Scotland it was expressly prohibited, although it was known that unofficial incentives to increased output were in operation on some sites. In July 1941 the Essential Work (Building and Civil Engineering) Order introduced a system of payment by results on all scheduled undertakings or sites wherever practicable and desirable. This wartime scheme ceased to operate in March 1947 when the Order was withdrawn. Later in 1947, however, agreed terms of settlement were drawn up by the executives on behalf of the bodies adherent to the National Joint Council for the Building Industry in England and Wales regarding, among other matters, the introduction of an incentive system of bonus payments in the building industry in England and Wales. The terms were submitted to the National Joint Council for the Building Industry on 20 October 1947 and were accepted by that body. The settlement came into effect from the beginning of the pay week following 16 November 1947.

This system of payment by results provides that in respect of work on a particular site, job, shop or factory any employer may, subject to certain conditions, initiate an incentive system of bonus payments proportionate to the results achieved in performing a definite task allotted either to an individual worker, to a gang of workers or to a team comprising men working on the site, on the basis of giving a worker of average ability and capacity a reasonable opportunity to achieve on such work earnings 20 per cent. higher than those yielded by the normal prescribed rate. The appropriate target and bonus payments must be fixed beforehand by the employer or his agent and then agreed to by the employees concerned and, unless material changes in circumstances occur, are not to be altered during the operation of the scheme on the particular job. After the target and bonus payments have been fixed, the bonus earnings of the individual worker are dependent entirely on the results achieved and thus may prove to be more or less than the level of 20 per cent. above the normal rate.

## Effects of Systems of Payment by Results

Judging from the reports which employers' organisations in the building industry in many European countries prepared on the

[1] The particulars given here for the building industry are largely reproduced from *International Labour Review*, Vol. LVIII, No. 5, November 1948, pp. 637-643: "Payment by Results in the Building and Civil Engineering Industries in the United Kingdom", to which reference may be made for further information.

subject of systems of payment by results for submission to the recent general meeting of the International Building and Public Works Federation, such systems have in practice proved satisfactory both from the employers' and from the workers' point of view and have been successful in raising output in varying degrees. For example, the Danish employers' organisation stated that the piece-work system had resulted in increased efficiency. Further, the detailed price lists, by rendering local negotiations on piece rates prior to commencement of a job unnecessary, had improved labour relations. On the other hand, it considered that the rigidity of the system tended to impede the introduction of improved techniques, since it might be difficult to obtain a reduction in piece rates already fixed. In Finland, it was felt that the current piece-work system, which had been the result of a lengthy period of trial and error, was, despite its shortcomings, satisfactory to both employers and workers. The piece rates were such that a skilled worker working at a " normal piece-work speed " (naturally higher than that on time work) could earn from 50 to 100 per cent. more than on time work. In Sweden, the report of the employers' organisations summarised the main advantages and disadvantages of that country's system of payment by results in the following terms :

*Advantages.*

*(a)* The system is conducive to high working intensity . . .

*(b)* Rates are fixed in advance. The contractor knows what to base his calculations on. No negotiations between employer and operative are necessary at the site. Previously the employer and operatives had the right of mutual agreement on wages for work for which no rates were fixed or for which the lists were inapplicable. In negotiations over free types of work, operatives often exercised undue pressure by refusing to commence work before the wage was agreed. By the terms of agreements, operatives are under an obligation to perform work for which rates have not been fixed against an hourly wage, but this regulation was not observed. The system led to very high rates for such types of work and to uncontrolled practices . . . Now the site manager is practically freed from this type of negotiation.

*(c)* Quantity surveys and calculation of wages are now done practically without the co-operation of the site manager, whose work is thus lightened. Operatives themselves have an interest in keeping up production. The number of foremen can be reduced.

*Disadvantages.*

*(a)* It is difficult to reduce wage costs by the introduction of new methods. Piece rates are admittedly based on certain given assumptions as regards methods and machinery, but in practice it is difficult to get rates reduced for simplification of work such as by the employment of better machinery.

*(b)* The great difference in earnings between piece work and a normal hourly wage makes it difficult to get operatives to work by the hour.

*(c)* Thus even if operatives are against working a large number of hours on day work, they have a great interest in obtaining day work on more

or less fictitious grounds. If an operative is interrupted for half an hour in his work, he is anxious to make it known that the interruption lasted half an hour. If he has done work which indisputably is not included in the piece-work agreement in 2 hours, he is not unlikely to claim that it took 2½ hours. To supervise all details of the work and account for the time correctly is impossible. There are thus daily discussions between the foreman and a representative appointed by the operatives at the conclusion of work about how much time shall be paid by results and how much by the hour. Operatives have a tendency to count time which should in reality be paid according to results as time to be paid by the hour . . .

*(d)* A serious drawback in payment by results is that quality tends to fall off. The operatives are out to produce as much as possible. This drawback is particularly noticeable in the more manual types of work.

*(e)* It can be said generally that payment by results produces a certain lack of flexibility in the carrying out of work. The various teams of operatives are really to be considered as subcontractors. The piece-rate list and the collective agreement are their contract . . . Each team wishes to run its work in the most advantageous manner for itself. Whenever any interruption occurs, claims are lodged for compensation. A co-ordination of the work of the different teams so as to eliminate interruptions and arrange for the different jobs to proceed precisely in the order and at the time most suitable for the whole is often impossible to achieve.

It cannot be denied that the system is complicated and attended by many drawbacks, yet nobody has been seriously prepared to suggest that it could be done away with. Earnings are very high, and much higher, compared to the hourly wage, than in other industries. But the conviction exists that it would be more costly to work with hourly wages, even disregarding the indirect extra costs of the larger number of operatives or the longer time required to complete a project.

For the building industry in France, the employers stated that the undertakings applying systems of payment by results were satisfied with the results which had been obtained so far as increased productivity was concerned. The increase in workers' earnings varied according to circumstances, but was generally from 5 to 25 per cent. above what would have been earned on time work, and in some cases 50 per cent., or even 100 per cent. In Germany, the employers considered that the results were conclusive wherever a system of payment by results had been employed; experiments carried out in the industry had shown that this system of payment was the best. In Switzerland, on the other hand, the employers stated that they could not come to any practical useful conclusion regarding the value of systems of payment by results. They maintained, in particular, that the quality of the work was affected, although it appeared that when applied to public works these systems were more successful.

Rather more definite statements can be made as to the results of the working of the system of payment by results which has been in operation in the building and construction industry in the United Kingdom, since the position has been investigated from time to

time by various official committees. Thus, the committee appointed by the Minister of Health in June 1947 to investigate the cost of housebuilding concluded in a first report, which was submitted to the Minister on 30 June 1948, that—

> Although full information about the working of the present scheme of incentive payments is not yet available, it is clear that a substantial raising of output would be necessary to cover the additional cost of the postulated bonus payments together with the November 1947 wage increase. The extent to which such an increase in output can be achieved will of course depend upon the extent to which supplies of materials can be made available to meet the additional demand.[1]

This committee submitted a second report[2] to the Minister on 20 February 1950, in which it drew the following conclusions as to the effect of the incentive schemes:

> The extent to which incentive schemes have been introduced following the October 1947 agreement has varied from one area to another. Our evidence shows that, over the country as a whole, schemes have been operated on about one contract in three, but that as they have been applied mainly on the larger contracts, they have covered about half of the houses completed in October 1949.
>
> The incentives agreement was of an experimental character and subject to review after two years. The details of schemes to be operated were left to be worked out between the contractor and the operatives on each contract, and as a result many different types of scheme have been tried. Some schemes were introduced almost immediately and others rather later as new contracts were begun. The results achieved, in relation to the level of productivity obtaining on the particular contract at the time of introduction of a scheme, varied widely; on some contracts well-designed schemes have been taken up with enthusiasm and goodwill by both sides and there has been a considerable improvement in productivity, but on others the effect has been small.
>
> Our sample of contracts completed in 1949 . . . included many contracts on which incentive schemes had been in operation, and, together with evidence from other sources, has enabled us to arrive at the conclusions set out below. These conclusions allow for the fact that incentive schemes have most often been used on the larger contracts, on which site man-hours per house are on average rather lower than on small contracts . . .
>
> It is clear from the evidence available to us that during the experimental period of two years a definite saving in man-hours has usually been associated with the operation of incentive schemes. The extent of the saving has varied widely, but the general indications are that the average reduction has been some 300 to 400 site man-hours per house in addition to savings attributable to other causes. This average saving has, of course,

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[1] MINISTRY OF HEALTH: *The Cost of House-Building*. First Report of the Committee of Inquiry appointed by the Minister of Health (London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1948), p. 57.

[2] It should be noted that the report was confined to an investigation of the costs of houses erected by local authorities and was not concerned with "the cost of houses erected for sale or letting, commonly called 'private enterprise building'".

been influenced by contracts where incentives have applied to the later stages of the work only, or to certain trades only, and by the experimental nature of most of the schemes introduced ; therefore it does not fully represent the saving which would have been obtained on a contract where a satisfactory scheme had been introduced from the commencement of the contract and for all operatives. If the average saving achieved, which was applicable to just under half the houses covered by our review, is expressed as an average saving over all such houses, the figure would be some 150 to 200 man-hours per house.

We have estimated . . . that since 1947 the total reduction in man-hours for a given type of house is on average 13 per cent.—equivalent to some 400 man-hours for the 1949 typical house. It thus follows that of this average reduction in man-hours rather less than half has been associated with the introduction of the incentives agreement of October 1947 and its application in varying degrees to just under half the houses built.[1] Rather more than half of the average reduction in man-hours is due to other causes . . .

The evidence which we have received about the financial effect of incentive schemes shows that the greater part of the saving in direct wages on most schemes is paid out in bonus. There are in addition savings in labour on-costs, plant charges and general overhead expenses consequent on the more rapid completion of contracts, but it appears that generally these have been largely offset by the cost of administering the schemes.

The effect of these various factors in a typical case in which a saving of 350 man-hours has been coupled with a bonus payment of £35 may be illustrated as follows :

| | £ | £ |
|---|---|---|
| Wages equivalent of 350 man-hours . . . . . | 48 | |
| Labour on-cost equivalent of 350 man-hours . . | 5 | 61 |
| Reduction in overheads and plant charges by more rapid completion . . . . . | 8 | |
| Less : | | |
| Bonus paid . . . . . | 35 | 46 |
| Cost of administering incentive scheme . . . | 11 | |
| Net saving per house . . . . | | 15 |

The above figures are necessarily only illustrative because of the wide variations in man-hours saved ; because the amount paid out in bonus for any given saving in man-hours varies according to the nature of the scheme adopted ; and because the cost per house of administering the scheme depends upon the size of the contract and the organisation of the firm concerned. It does, however, seem from the evidence we have that in most cases during the period to October 1949 there has been a net saving in cost per house attributable to the operation of an incentive scheme, and that on average this saving might be of the order of £15 per house.

The full saving in cost achieved by the introduction of incentive schemes may not in all cases have accrued to the benefit of the local authority, but it is to be anticipated that as increased experience of the results of

[1] The reduction in man-hours directly attributable to the operation of the incentive payment scheme is thus somewhat less than 6.5 per cent. This means that about 6.5 per cent. more local authority houses could be completed in a given time as a result of the introduction of this scheme on the local authority housing projects.

such schemes is gained by contractors, the normal processes of competition will ensure that tenders will reflect the saving.

Further improvement in output and consequent reduction in cost must principally depend on increased effort on the part of both employers and operatives. Considerable experience of operating incentive schemes has now been gained and, with the co-operation of both sides of the industry in all parts of the country, incentive schemes could be more generally applied and play an important part in securing further reductions in man-hours with some consequent reduction in cost.[1]

Further evidence as to the effect of the incentive schemes was given by the working party on building which was set up in July 1948 by the Minister of Works and submitted its report to him on 11 January 1950. It made the following statement in this regard:

In England and Wales incentive schemes are being more widely adopted and we understand that once introduced by a firm they are rarely discontinued . . .

The Ministry of Works carried out a pilot investigation into productivity in the house construction industry in England and Wales during 1949, and although the survey was based on a comparatively small sample of 163 contracts and did not cover the whole of the country, its results are nevertheless of considerable interest, and represent an attempt to measure by sampling techniques the national level of productive efficiency, the changes which have occurred therein and the effect of such factors as incentive payments, size of contract, site organisation and the use of mechanical plant on the rate of output and costs of construction.

The conclusions drawn concerning the effects of incentive payments on productivity and costs were that a saving in man-hours which more than offset the additional labour cost resulted from the payment of bonus and that total costs appeared to be reduced by more than the net saving in labour cost. This latter result was probably due to some saving on labour on-costs or on site organisation or on mechanical plant costs arising out of the operation of the incentive schemes.

We have received evidence from various other sources indicating that incentive schemes have been a means of increasing productivity and lowering building costs. It appears thus that incentive schemes have been operated successfully in certain places and there seems to be no reason why they should not prove generally beneficial. Their successful adoption would, however, depend on the acceptance of certain principles. These are, that the scheme is readily understood by the operatives, that the bonus is linked with output, that production or the tasks are properly planned, that realistic targets are set having regard to the site conditions, and that during the period of the work the employee can compare his output with the target.

Some witnesses have expressed doubts regarding the effect of incentive schemes on the quality of work; but though it is clear that certain specially skilled work is unsuitable for bonusing, there is no evidence to show that bonused work is generally of inadequate quality. Work of poor or inadequate quality on sites where incentive schemes are operating can usually

[1] MINISTRY OF HEALTH: *The Cost of House-Building*. Second Report of the Committee of Inquiry appointed by the Minister of Health (London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1950), pp. 14-15.

be dealt with by improving supervision. Once the quality of work has reached a certain standard it should normally be output that is required rather than higher quality. Difficulties are liable to arise if certain work cannot be bonused, but we do not think that they are such as need prejudice the general adoption of incentive schemes.

The terms of the joint agreement of October 1947, so far as they relate to incentive schemes, are, we understand, to be reviewed by the parties to the agreement in the near future in the light of the experience gained in the working of these schemes. We cannot foretell the result of this review, but it is clear to us that an appropriate system of incentive schemes is an imperative requirement if output in the industry is to be adequately increased, particularly under conditions of full employment. We do not overlook the practical difficulties, and we recognise that there is in some parts of the industry, and not only among the trade unions, an ingrained suspicion or dislike of bonusing, but we believe these difficulties can be overcome and we very much hope, therefore, that the result of the review to which we have referred will be to continue the operation of incentive schemes subject to any modifications which may be necessary.[1]

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[1] MINISTRY OF WORKS: *Working Party Report: Building* (London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1950), pp. 82-88.

# STATISTICS

## Explanatory Notes on the Tables on Unemployment and Employment, Consumer Prices, Wages and Hours of Work

*These explanatory notes, relating to the principal methods of compilation of the different types of statistics, are published each year in the January issue of the* Review.

The data given in the periodical tables of the *Review* are compiled by the International Labour Office from figures published or communicated by the statistical authorities of the various countries. Unemployment figures and percentages, employment indices and indices of general consumer prices and food prices are published every month. Beginning with the current issue, statistics of the general level of wages and hours of work, hitherto published quarterly, will alternate monthly with those of wages and hours of work in manufacturing.

Most of the series given in the form of index numbers are computed by the Office with the base 1937 = 100, but in the case of series for which a 1937 base cannot be used the index figures are printed in italics.

There are many differences in the methods of compilation of these statistics in different countries[1], the more important of which are indicated, so far as possible, in the table headings. They must be taken into account in interpreting the figures, and international comparisons are possible only with substantial reservations. In general, the fluctuations in time of the various series lend themselves better to international comparison than do the absolute figures for a given date.

In the tables on unemployment, employment, wages and hours of work, an essential distinction is made between the different kinds of statistics according to the sources of the basic data. Each

[1] Details of the methods of computation used in each country for the different series were given in the June 1948-August 1949 issues of the *Review* (cost of living, June-November 1948 ; unemployment, December 1948 ; employment, January-March 1949 ; wages, April-August 1949). Subsequent issues indicate any changes in the tables, such as the introduction of new series, changes in methods of computation, etc.

kind is subject to special qualifications, which are mentioned in the following notes. Except in the unemployment table, the *economic scope* of each series is indicated by mention of the main industrial groups covered. The mention of one of these groups (*e.g.*, mining or transport) does not necessarily mean that the statistics cover all the branches of which it is composed, but that they cover at least the most important ; to indicate that only a few branches are covered, the sign " e " is used, but when a group is represented only by one or two branches of small importance (for example, " mining " by quarrying, or " transport " by tramways), it is not mentioned in the heading. In some tables, these indications are supplemented by mention of the *categories of employees* covered (wage earners and salaried employees ; skilled and unskilled workers ; men and women). These distinctions should not be taken in too strict a sense ; some of them are based on conceptions admitting of rather widely differing interpretation from country to country. Finally, the mention at the foot of the column for each series of the *number of persons* covered by the statistics at a recent date makes it possible, by comparing a particular figure with the total number of workers in the category or economic group in the country concerned, to estimate approximately the extent to which the series is representative.

Figures covering the average of a quarter are shown against one of the months of the quarter. Annual data are averages of monthly or quarterly figures.

More detailed data are published in the *Year Book of Labour Statistics*.

Countries are arranged by continents in the alphabetical order of their English names.

## Unemployment

The statistics of unemployment shown in table I generally relate to the wholly unemployed, *i.e.*, persons able and willing to work who are unable to obtain employment. A few series cover partial unemployment also, but offer only a very imperfect measure of this phenomenon. Loss of working time through sickness, accident and industrial disputes is generally not covered. So far as possible, the statistics are presented in the form of absolute numbers and of percentages.

The *numbers* seeking work or registered as unemployed relate usually to persons unemployed on a particular day or during a relatively short period, such as a week ; they present, therefore, an idea of the size of the problem of unemployment within the fields covered by the respective series. Fluctuations reflect not only seasonal and other variations in economic activity but also, over a period, changes in the industrial and social structure of the population.

*Percentages* of unemployment may be calculated either by relating the number of workers in the given group who are unemployed

on a particular day to the total of employed and unemployed persons in the group at the same date, or by relating the man-days lost through unemployment during a period to the total possible man-days that might have been worked during the same period by all the persons in the group considered. These percentages reflect the severity of unemployment within the fields covered by the respective series.

The figures vary greatly in completeness and reliability, depending upon the type of institution furnishing the data and its degree of development, on the economic scope or coverage, and on the definition of " unemployed " adopted.[1]

The statistics are limited, in the main, to wage earners, and refer to a less extent to salaried employees.

Five main types of statistics may be distinguished (indicated in the table headings by I, II, III, IV and V) :

I. *Labour force sample surveys.* Although not as yet widespread, the sampling technique for estimating the number of the unemployed has proved in practice to be a satisfactory and reliable method. It may be considered to yield the best over-all figures on unemployment since, in particular, it covers certain groups of persons, such as new workers seeking jobs but never previously employed, who are not included in insurance schemes. It is not affected by changes in legislation, administrative regulations and the like.

II. *Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics.* These, in general, have a broad industrial coverage and are reliable statistics. Their scope is determined by the insurance legislation and administrative regulations. The percentage of employment is found by comparing the number of insured unemployed with the total number of insured persons. The comparability of the percentages from country to country is of course affected by differences in the scope of the insurance legislation as well as by differences in the administrative regulations in force. Their comparability over a period of time within the same country is subject to reservations if important changes have taken place in the insurance legislation or in the administrative regulations governing the registration of the unemployed.

III. *Trade union fund returns.* These series are affected by the conditions governing membership of the trade union as well as of the trade union unemployment benefit fund. They do not, therefore, necessarily represent all the unemployed in the industries or occupations covered by the trade unions ; they reflect only unemployment among members of the funds. Moreover, the percentages showing the proportion of unemployed trade union fund

[1] Cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE, Studies and Reports, Series N, No. 7 : *Methods of Statistics of Unemployment* (Geneva, 1925) ; and New Series, No. 7, Part 1 : *Employment, Unemployment and Labour Force Statistics. A Study of Methods* (Geneva, 1948).

members to the total membership of the fund, may not be representative if the members of the union constitute a favoured group from the point of view of the incidence of unemployment. Fluctuations in numbers and percentages are influenced by the growth or contraction of unions and by the effect of economic prosperity or depression upon the extent of coverage of the funds. The scope of the figures depends on the stage of development of the funds. Conditions governing the recording of unemployed workers and the payment of benefits vary widely. The statistics may thus be fairly satisfactory in some countries, and incomplete and unreliable in others.

IV. *Trade union returns.* These statistics are subject to most of the deficiencies of the trade union fund series. As in the absence of a trade union fund, benefits are commonly not paid to unemployed members, the figures are based simply on reports compiled by union secretaries, and their value depends largely on union rules and practices in regard to reporting by members of their employment status. In some cases, therefore, the statistics may be reliable indicators of unemployment among trade union members, more particularly when expressed in the form of percentage rates, but in other cases the figures are not representative of unemployment among trade unionists generally. The degree of representativeness of trade union statistics is always difficult and sometimes impossible to ascertain. Reference should also be made to the notes under III above.

V. *Employment office statistics.* These series are based on the applications for employment registered at the offices and usually give the number pending at the end of each month. The value of these statistics varies widely : in a few cases, where the employment offices function in close connection with unemployment insurance, registration with the exchange being a condition precedent to obtaining unemployment benefits, these statistics are comparable in reliability to insurance figures. Employment offices operating in connection with large unemployment relief schemes may provide reasonably satisfactory figures. However, where registration with an office is entirely voluntary, and especially where the offices function only in the more populous regions of a country or are not widely patronised by workers seeking work or by employers seeking workers, the data are incomplete and may be unreliable.

Applicants for work may include the sick, those on strike, those employed on relief works as well as a larger or smaller number of persons who, though employed, are seeking transfer to other work in order to better their conditions of employment. The file of applicants requires continual checking to eliminate those who no longer require jobs. On the other hand, not all the unemployed may register. The scope of the figures is determined partly by the manner in which the employment service is organised and the advantages which registration brings, and partly by the extent to which workers are accustomed to register. The scope of employment office statistics is most difficult to ascertain. In many cases, persons connected

with the mining and manufacturing industries utilise the offices to a greater degree than those engaged in transport, commerce and services, while persons engaged in agriculture, and therefore generally living in less thickly populated areas, may scarcely be represented in the statistics at all.

In very few cases can satisfactory percentages of unemployment be calculated from these figures, since knowledge of the exact scope of the registrations is usually lacking. In general, therefore, these figures cannot be considered as comparable from country to country, though their fluctuations within a country generally reflect changes in the prevalence of unemployment.

## EMPLOYMENT

The employment indices given in the tables relate, on the one hand, to *employment in general*—table II—and, on the other, to *employment in manufacturing* as shown by the numbers employed —table III *(a)*—and the hours worked—table III *(b)*.

The economic scope of the statistics of employment in general varies from one country to another, and their international comparability is consequently subject to certain reservations. In all but a few cases agriculture is not covered.

The series relating to employment in manufacturing are more homogeneous in scope. In a few cases building or mining is covered as well as manufacturing.

In each of the three tables an indication is given as to whether the statistics refer to the whole labour force or to salaried employees and wage earners or to wage earners only. " Wage earners " and " salaried employees " are defined differently in various countries, and the headings therefore give only an approximate indication of differences in coverage. The figures showing the number of workers covered relate in general to the date used as base (whenever possible, 1937).

The indices of *numbers of persons in employment*, whether in general or in manufacturing, generally refer to the total number at work at a specified date each month or quarter, but sometimes to the average number over a given period. No distinction is usually made between persons working full time and those working less than full time. Fluctuations in the series for a particular country reflect the influence, on the one hand, of factors connected with seasonal and other short-term variations in economic activity and, on the other, of long-term trends in the population, including changes in its industrial and social structure. Where the trend in the total labour force is upwards, as is usually the case, the employment index tends to follow a similar trend. Where the index refers only to wage and salary earners, who in most cases show a tendency to become an increasingly large proportion of the total labour force, the series will also show a rising trend on this account. On the other hand, changes in institutional factors (for example, raising

of the statutory school-leaving age) may result in a decrease in the numbers available for employment.

The indices of *total hours worked in manufacturing* show changes in total man-hours of work performed in a specified period, usually a week in each month or a whole month. These series take into account not only the numbers of persons employed but also fluctuations in their hours of work, and thus reflect variations in the total " volume " of employment.

The indices in these tables are based on statistics of the following types (indicated in the table headings by the signs I, II, III, and IV) [1] :

I. *Labour force sample surveys.* In three countries and two non-metropolitan territories employment data are obtained from labour force sample surveys, a technique which, when based on adequate sampling methods, has been found effective and reliable. The sample survey method permits the compilation of complete figures relating to the total civilian labour force, including unpaid family workers and seasonal workers, groups which are often not covered by other types of employment statistics.

II. *Compulsory social insurance statistics,* relating to the working population (generally sickness or accident insurance). The number of contributors or of contributions paid furnishes a measure of the number of insured persons in employment (unemployed persons being exempt from the obligation to pay contributions). These statistics constitute a kind of continuous census of employment. The provisions regulating an insurance scheme determine the scope of the statistics derived from its operation.

III. *Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics.* The number employed is obtained by deducting the number of insured unemployed from the total number of insured persons. The statistics of insured unemployed are generally reliable since registration is a condition of benefit. Records of the total number of insured persons must be constantly kept up to date if this system is to yield accurate employment data. The scope of the statistics is determined by the provisions which regulate the insurance scheme.

IV. *Statistics of establishments.* These show the numbers of workers on establishment payrolls and may also show the total number of hours worked during a specific pay period. There are two types of statistics of establishments—here denoted A and B—and in some cases the two are used in combination :

IV (A). Statistics covering all establishments fulfilling certain conditions (*e.g.*, having more than a certain minimum number of employees ; having an annual output of more than a certain value,

[1] Cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE, Studies and Reports, New Series, No. 7, Part 1, *op. cit.*

etc.). These data may be collected separately or in conjunction with statistics of industrial production. They may be subject to a certain bias owing to the exclusion of establishments below the minimum size for inclusion in the series. Provided, however, that this minimum is small, the scope of such series is very wide and they reflect accurately changes in employment.

IV (B). Statistics relating to a selected sample of establishments and designed to show the trend in numbers employed or total hours worked in all establishments within the field covered by the statistics. The chief difficulty with such series is to ensure that the sample establishments remain representative of the whole. Changes in industrial structure, the growth and decline of individual establishments, general population movements and pronounced changes in the levels of activity in some sectors of the economy may result in the sample becoming unrepresentative. In practice such series tend to be subject to a cumulative bias which may become appreciable after several years.

IV (A/B). In certain countries where type A statistics of establishments are available only at long intervals, they are combined with statistics of type B, available more frequently and more promptly ; the combination is made either by chaining or by interpolation.

### Consumer Prices

The table presents two sets of indices : general consumer price indices (cost-of-living indices), usually covering consumption expenditure on food, fuel and light, clothing, rent and miscellaneous items ; and indices of retail food prices.[1]

The indices are designed to show changes in the cost of goods and services purchased by consumers. They are based on retail prices which are recorded at regular intervals by a number of informants at different places in the city or country concerned. Each average price or price relative is multiplied by a " weight " determined by the importance of the item or group of items in consumption expenditure. Usually these weights are derived from budget enquiries among families of wage earners or wage earners and salaried employees. In other cases, theoretical budgets have been established or the weights are based on the aggregate consumption of the items concerned in the whole country.

It is important to note that the indices measure changes over time in the cost of the specific items covered and are thus intended to show changes in the cost of maintaining the standard of consumption indicated by a fixed list of goods and services, different

[1] In some countries the index given under food includes also articles of fuel and light which it has not been possible to exclude. Index numbers for the groups fuel and light, clothing and rent, are given in the *Year Book of Labour Statistics, 1947-48*, table XIX.

for each country. They should not be used to compare the absolute levels of consumer prices in different countries at a given time—they merely show for each individual country the relationship between prices at a given time and prices at the base date.

As many as possible of the series have been recalculated by the International Labour Office on the uniform base 1937 = 100. This has been effected by dividing the index for each date by the index for 1937 (annual average) and multiplying the quotient by 100.

The headings of the table show for each series the town or number of towns in which prices are recorded, the original base period of the indices, and the composition of the general consumers' price index (chief groups covered).

## Wages

The statistics of the general level of wages and of wages in manufacturing (rates or earnings) which, as stated above, will now be presented in alternate months, show money wages. The regular index series have been discontinued, but when money wages are not available, index numbers are given, if available. The headings show for each series whether it represents average earnings or rates of pay. Wages per hour and per week are given for each country when available, and in other cases wages per day or per month.

The series, especially those of rates, relate principally to wage earners, but in certain cases cover also salaried employees. Where possible, data are given for each sex separately and for both together.

*Statistics of earnings* are most commonly obtained from statistics of *establishments*. Since these statistics are based on payroll records, they usually cover employees' remuneration of all kinds, including overtime payments, bonuses, allowances, etc. Average earnings per hour or per day are generally obtained by dividing the total wages paid in a given period by the number of man-hours or man-days worked during that period. Average earnings for longer periods are obtained by dividing the total wages paid by the average number of workers employed during the period. The composition of the sample of establishments, the workers covered and the methods of calculation employed determine the degree to which the averages are representative of earnings in general.

Statistics of earnings may also be obtained from *social insurance data*. Averages are calculated either from data showing the total amount of insured wages and the number of man-days or man-weeks worked or from data showing the number of insured persons classified according to the wages received. These statistics usually give lower averages than payroll data because overtime payments, efficiency bonuses, etc., may not be covered ; in addition, insurance schemes generally set an upper limit above which amounts received as wages are not covered by insurance, and may also include low-paid workers in small establishments not included in statistics of establishments.

*Statistics of wage rates* are based on the conditions laid down in collective agreements or decisions of arbitration courts or other authorities, which generally specify minimum rates. In practice, the rates paid usually correspond closely with these minima. Generally only rates of pay for adults working normal hours are taken into account, and average straight-time (normal) rates of pay per hour and per week are calculated. The degree to which the statistics are representative of wage rates in general depends on the number of occupations for which data are collected and the importance of these occupations in the country concerned. In countries where the fixing of wage rates is widespread, representative statistics of average rates of pay can be calculated if averages for a large number of different occupational groups are taken, and are weighted according to the importance (measured by employment) of these occupations in the branches of economic activity covered by the statistics.

Fluctuations in the statistics of earnings reflect the influence both of changes in money rates of wages and of variations in hours of work. There are clearly important differences between the two types of earnings data (payroll and social insurance), and both in turn are different from statistics of wage rates. Earnings per day, week or month may fall short of wage rates for comparable periods based on normal hours of work, if the hours actually worked fall short of the normal. Earnings may be higher than the corresponding rates when overtime payments, efficiency premiums, bonuses and other allowances (none of which normally enter into statistics of wage rates) are included.

Comparisons between series for different countries, whether of earnings or of wage rates, are subject to further reservations arising out of differences in economic scope, in the groups of persons covered (adults, juveniles, etc.) and in methods of compilation, besides those arising out of the unit of time to which the figures relate.

## Hours of Work

The statistics of the general level of hours of work and of hours in manufacturing, presented in alternate months, refer to the average hours worked per worker, except for Australia and New Zealand, for which normal hours are given. They are generally expressed per week, but where weekly data are not available, hours per day or other period are given.

The *average hours actually worked per worker* are generally based on statistics of establishments, that is to say, on payroll data furnished by selected establishments. The degree of representativeness of the establishments included in the sample varies from country to country. The averages *per week* (or longer period) are as a rule obtained by dividing the total number of man-hours worked during the week (or period) in the establishments covered by the average number of workers on the payrolls of these establishments in the same week (or period). Average hours of work *per day* are generally

obtained by dividing the number of man-hours worked during a given period by the number of man-days worked in that period.

In making comparisons, it should be borne in mind that differences in average hours are influenced by the number of days normally worked per week, the duration of Saturday work, the extent of absenteeism, labour turnover, etc., and by varying practice in the statistical treatment of overtime.

The statistics of *normal hours of work* for Australia and New Zealand are based on the terms of collective agreements and arbitration awards and are weighted averages of normal hours of work for adults in the branches of economic activity covered by such agreements and awards.

* * *

## Unemployment and Employment

The tables show:

I. Number of *unemployed* or applicants for work.

II. Indices of the *general level* of employment.

III. *(a)* Indices of the level of *employment in manufacturing.*

*(b)* Indices of total hours worked in *manufacturing employment.*

## Consumer Prices

The table shows indices of consumer prices, covering generally the main groups of expenditure, viz., food, fuel and light, clothing, rent and miscellaneous, and, in the lower half, the corresponding indices of retail food prices.

### *Changes in the Table*

The series for the *Sudan* (Africa) and *British Guiana* (America) have been omitted, owing to lack of current data.

Series have been introduced for the Belgian Congo (Africa), Venezuela (America) and Pakistan (Asia), and a new series for France (Europe) has replaced the former series.

*Belgian Congo.* The index, with base 1935 = 100, is calculated for non-manual European workers. The number of items in each group is: food, 33; heat, light, water, etc., 20; clothing, 7; miscellaneous, 5.

*Venezuela.* A detailed description will be given in a forthcoming issue of the *Review.*

*Pakistan (Lahore).* The index, with base August 1939 = 100, is calculated for lower paid salaried employees. The number of items in each group

is: food, 136; clothing, 143; rent, 40; light, water, etc., 17; miscellaneous, 116. Prices are obtained twice a month.

*France (Paris).* The new index, with base 1949 = 100, is based on the expenditures of wage earners' and lower paid salaried employees' families of four persons (two adults and two children under 16 years). The weights are based on family expenditure studies made in 1948 and 1950. The number of items in each group and the percentage weights are:

| | No. of items | Percentage weights |
|---|---|---|
| Food | 41 | 58.0 |
| Fuel, light | 7 | 4.0 |
| Clothing | 115 | 20.0 |
| Rent | 2 | 2.1 |
| Miscellaneous | 48 | 15.9 |
| | 213 | 100.0 |

Laspeyre's formula is used in computing the index.

Prices for food, fuel and light are obtained once a week and those for the other groups quarterly. Seasonal fluctuations are not taken into account; fresh fruits and vegetables are excluded.

## Wages

The table shows the *general level* of wages, giving rates or earnings per hour, day, week or month.

### *Changes in the Table*

*Ceylon.* A series has been introduced showing wage rates based on the original determinations of wage boards, adjusted by cost-of-living indices. Details of the method of computation will be presented in a later issue.

*Luxembourg.* A series has been introduced showing the general level of earnings obtained from an annual census of all industrial establishments. Hourly earnings are calculated by dividing the total sum paid to wage earners during each year by the number of man-hours worked. No adjustments are made to compensate for changes in the structure of industry, or in the composition of the labour force with respect to the relative numbers of skilled and unskilled male workers, females, juveniles and apprentices employed.

## Hours of Work

The table shows the *general level* of hours of work per week.

### *Changes in the Table*

*Japan.* A series has been introduced showing hours actually worked per month. These figures, like the series on earnings per month first published in the November 1950 issue of the *Review*, are based on a monthly survey

of establishments conducted by the Labour Ministry and the Bureau of Statistics. The data cover all persons receiving a wage or salary, including managers, working directors and temporary employees working for 30 days or more. Approximately one half of the country's industrial employees and one fourth of the industrial establishments are covered by a stratified sample weighted to represent all industry. Wages reported are gross, including contract earnings and special payments of all kinds received during the " reporting month ", which may be the calendar month or the individual firm's fiscal month.

SYMBOLS AND TYPES EMPLOYED

. = not available or do not exist.
... = not yet received.
* = provisional.
— = nil or negligible.
r = revised since previous issue.
e = represented by a few branches only.
o = relates to men only (wages tables).

A line ——— placed between two figures of a series signifies that the earlier has been replaced by another or revised series.

Thick-faced type : index number **(100)** in base year.
Italics : index numbers based on another year than 1937.
Figures in brackets : series subject to certain reservations.

# Unemployment and Employment

## TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

| Date | Africa | | | America | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Nigeria [1] | Southern Rhodesia | Union of South Africa | Canada | | | |
| | V | V | V | I [2] | | II | |
| | Unemployed (registered) | Unemployed (registered) | Unemployed (registered) | Unemployed (estimated) | | Unemployed (insured) | |
| | | | | | % | | % |
| 1937 | . | . | 4 510 | 337 000 | 12.5 | . | . |
| 1938 | . | . | 5 279 | 407 000 | 15.1 | . | . |
| 1939 | . | . | 6 167 | 386 000 | 14.1 | . | . |
| 1941 | . | . | 3 543 | 370 000 | 8.0 | . | . |
| 1942 | . | . | 4 256 | 238 000 | 5.3 | . | . |
| 1943 | . | . | 5 502 | 99 000 | 2.2 | . | . |
| 1944 | 7 272 | . | 3 731 | 82 000 | 1.8 | 10 454 | 0.5 |
| 1945 | 7 562 | . | 5 383 | 172 000 [3] | 3.8 [3] | 41 139 | 1.9 |
| 1946 | 7 264 | . | 5 390 | 143 000 | 3.0 | 96 760 | 4.5 |
| 1947 | 6 874 | 253 | 10 266 | 98 000 | 2.0 | 68 254 | 3.0 |
| 1948 | 6 351 | 280 | 12 173 | 103 000 | 2.1 | 88 909 | 3.6 |
| 1949 | ... | 245 | 15 138 | 137 000 | 2.7 | 135 624 | 5.2 |
| 1949: Nov. | ... | 265 | 18 626 | . | . | 152 269 | 5.7 |
| Dec. | ... | 235 | 18 908 | . | . | 222 064 | 8.3 |
| 1950: Jan. | ... | 226 | 20 855 | . | . | 297 238 | 11.2 |
| Feb. | ... | 283 | 20 108 | . | . | 286 163 | 10.8 |
| Mar. | ... | 242 | 19 629 | 312 000 | 6.1 | 265 382 | 9.8 |
| April | ... | 260 | 19 121 | . | . | 209 905 | 7.9 |
| May | ... | 278 | 18 676 | . | . | 146 453 | 5.4 |
| June | ... | 256 | 17 156 | 140 000 | 2.8 | 109 433 | 4.2 |
| July | ... | 225 | 16 490 | . | . | 92 520 | 3.4 |
| Aug. | ... | 233 | 15 452 | 103 000 | 1.8 | 98 930 | 3.6 |
| Sept. | ... | 225 | 13 697 | . | . | 79 263 | 2.9* |
| Oct. | ... | 226 | 12 306 | . | . | 90 300 | 3.3* |
| Nov. | ... | ... | 11 150 | 117 000 | 2.2 | 124 800 | ... |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | . | . | . | 5 115 [4] | | 2 610 [5] | |

| Date | America (concl.) | | | | | Asia | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | United States | | Chile | Puerto Rico | | Union of Burma [6] | India | Israel |
| | I | | V | I | | V | V | V |
| | Unemployed (estimated) | | Applicants for work registered | Unemployed (estimated) | | Applicants for work registered | Applicants for work registered | Unemployed (registered) [7] |
| | | % | | | % | | | |
| 1937 | 7 700 000 | 14.3 | 2 303 | . | . | . | . | . |
| 1938 | 10 390 000 | 19.0 | 3 478 | . | . | . | . | . |
| 1939 | 9 480 000 | 17.2 | 8 323 | . | . | . | . | . |
| 1941 | 5 560 000 [8] | 9.9 [8] | 3 054 | . | . | . | . | . |
| 1942 | 2 660 000 | 4.7 | 1 858 | . | . | . | . | . |
| 1943 | 1 070 000 | 1.9 | 2 753 | . | . | . | . | . |
| 1944 | 670 000 | 1.2 | 3 261 | . | . | . | . | 1 409 |
| 1945 | 1 040 000 | 1.9 | 3 506 | . | . | . | . | 1 237 |
| 1946 | 2 270 000 | 3.9 | 3 425 | 80 000 [9] | 12.0 [9] | . | . | 1 870 |
| 1947 | 2 142 000 | 3.6 | 3 700 | 76 000 | 11.0 | 3 116 [10] | . | 2 772 |
| 1948 | 2 064 000 | 3.4 | 3 205 | 71 000 | 10.3 | 2 614 | 224 900 | 1 320 [11] |
| 1949 | 3 395 000 | 5.5 | 3 443 | 79 000 | 11.3 | 844 | 293 043 | 6 351 |
| 1949: Nov. | 3 409 000 | 5.4 | 3 887 | 115 000 | 15.8 | 573 | 291 584 | 8 541 |
| Dec. | 3 489 000 | 5.6 | 3 454 | 117 000 | 16.0 | 573 | 274 335 | 10 007 |
| 1950: Jan. | 4 480 000 | 7.9 | 3 255 | 131 000 | 18.1 | 488 | 269 091 | 9 822 |
| Feb. | 4 684 000 | 7.6 | 2 866 | 106 000 | 14.0 | 504 | 265 295 | 8 168 |
| Mar. | 4 123 000 | 6.7 | 3 014 | 85 000 | 11.0 | 662 | 265 962 | 5 430 |
| April | 3 515 000 | 5.7 | 2 751 | 89 000 | 11.5 | 926 | 281 972 | 6 062 |
| May | 3 057 000 | 4.9 | 3 169 | 89 000 | 11.6 | 1 184 | 305 003 | 5 251 |
| June | 3 384 000 | 5.2 | 3 231 | 96 000 | 12.3 | 1 532 | 322 958 | 4 609 |
| July | 3 213 000 | 5.0 | 3 277 | 107 000 | 13.9 | 1 674 | 345 395 | 5 069 |
| Aug. | 2 500 000 | 3.8 | 3 140 | 120 000 | 15.7 | 1 786 | 365 732 | 5 200 |
| Sept. | 2 341 000 | 3.7 | ... | ... | ... | 1 813 | 347 944 | 4 463 |
| Oct. | 1 940 000 | 3.0 | ... | ... | ... | 1 795 | 338 311 | 4 932 |
| Nov. | 2 240 000 | 3.5 | ... | ... | ... | 1 729 | 333 628 | 4 972 |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 62 105 [4] | | . | 702 [4] | | . | . | . |

I. Labour force sample surveys.
II. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics.
III. Trade union fund returns.
IV. Trade union returns.
V. Employment office statistics.

[1] Lagos. [2] Up to 1944, the figures are estimates. [3] Nov. [4] Average for 1949. [5] Apr. 1949. [6] Rangoon. [7] Daily average during the month. [8] Commencing 1940, estimates obtained from monthly sample surveys of the labour force. [9] Mar.-Dec. [10] June-Dec. [11] Jan.-Mar., July-Dec.

## TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT *(cont.)*

| Date | Asia *(concl.)* | | | Europe | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Japan | | Pakistan | Austria | | Belgium | |
| | I [1] | | V | V | | II | |
| | Unemployed (estimated) | | Applicants for work registered | Unemployed (registered) [2] | | Unemployed (insured) | |
| | | % | | | % | | % |
| 1937 | 295 443 | 3.7 | . | 320 961 | . | 125 929 | 13.8 |
| 1938 | 237 371 | 3.0 | . | 244 000 | . | 173 913 | 18.4 |
| 1939 | . | . | . | 66 000 | . | 195 211 | 19.3 |
| 1941 | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| 1942 | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| 1943 | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| 1944 | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| 1945 | . | . | . | . | . | 144 579 [3] | 9.3 [3] |
| 1946 | 1 590 318 [4] | 5.4 [4] | . | 74 105 | . | 67 292 | 4.5 |
| 1947 | 671 780 [5] | 1.9 [5] | . | 31 737 | 1.7 | 67 560 | 3.5 |
| 1948 | 240 000 | 0.7 | 77 983 | 43 409 | 2.3 | 129 203 | 6.4 |
| 1949 | 380 000 | 1.0 | 70 996 | 91 238 | 4.6 | 234 896 | 11.7 |
| 1949 : Nov. | 330 000 | 0.9 | 86 327 | 80 498 | 4.0 | 259 387 | 12.9 |
| Dec. | 340 000 | 0.9 | 86 490 | 133 651 | 6.7 | 265 075 | 13.2 |
| 1950 : Jan. | 400 000 | 1.2 | 89 303 | 182 796 | 9.2 | 308 968 | 15.4 |
| Feb. | 430 000 | 1.3 | 86 044 | 189 444 | 9.5 | 264 261 | 13.2 |
| Mar | 460 000 | 1.3 | 89 496 | 147 722 | 7.4 | 236 839 | 11.8 |
| April | 500 000 | 1.4 | 99 496 | 119 659 | 6.0 | 219 955 | 11.0 |
| May | 430 000 | 1.1 | 103 058 | 102 422 | 5.1 | 210 989 | 10.5 |
| June | 470 000 | 1.2 | 102 876 | 96 622 | 4.8 | 208 323 | 10.4 |
| July | 470 000 | 1.2 | 101 647 | 92 995 | 4.6 | 204 566 | 10.2 |
| Aug. | 550 000 | 1.5 | 103 266 | 89 546 | 4.4 | 179 982 | 8.9 |
| Sept. | 460 000 | 1.2 | 100 779 | 86 163 | 4.3 | 170 271 | 8.5 |
| Oct. | 410 000 | 1.1 | 99 511 | 89 669 | 4.4 | 163 994 | 8.1 |
| Nov. | ... | ... | ... | 118 365 | 5.8 | ... | ... |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 36 805 [6] | | . | 1972 [6] | | 2 001 [7] | |

| Date | Europe *(cont.)* | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Denmark | | Finland | France | | Germany [8] | |
| | III | | V | [9] | V | [10] | |
| | Unemployed (trade unionists) | | Unemployed (registered) [11] | Unemployed (on relief) | Applications for work registered | Unemployed (registered) [12] | |
| | | % | | | | | % |
| 1937 | 95 630 | 21.7 | 3 695 | 354 554 | 379 994 | . | . |
| 1938 | 97 707 | 21 3 | 3 602 | 373 641 | 402 186 | . | . |
| 1939 | 88 924 | 18.4 | 3 300 | 381 902 [13] | 418 413 [13] | . | . |
| 1941 | 97 404 | 18.4 | 3 384 | 292 649 | 394 534 | . | . |
| 1942 | 81 276 | 15.1 | 1 561 | 70 312 | 123 957 | . | . |
| 1943 | 58 480 | 10.7 | 923 | 19 878 | 41 552 | . | . |
| 1944 | 46 420 | 8.3 | 2 018 | . | . | . | . |
| 1945 | 76 232 | 13.4 | 5 312 | 15 813 | 68 436 | . | . |
| 1946 | 51 636 | 8.9 | — | 15 663 | 56 633 | . | . |
| 1947 | 51 998 | 8.9 | — | 7 389 | 45 738 | 595 242 [14] | . |
| 1948 | 51 644 | 8.7 | — | 16 737 | 77 803 | 603 858 | 4.3 |
| 1949 | 59 041 | 9.6 | 25 683 | 39 748 | 131 062 | 1 262 997 | 8.5 |
| 1949 : Nov. | 61 534 | 9.9 | 46 893 | 43 423 | 149 022 | 1 383 832 | . |
| Dec. | 113 505 | 18.2 | 58 075 | 46 396 | 153 545 | 1 558 469 | 10.3 |
| 1950 : Jan. | 113 232 | 18.1 | 52 873 | 52 477 | 172 972 | 1 897 644 | . |
| Feb. | 92 072 | 14.7 | 54 858 | 58 857 | 185 386 | 1 981 908 | . |
| Mar. | 57 223 | 9.1 | 55 776 | 61 638 | 182 202 | 1 851 879 | 12.2 |
| April | 46 296 | 7.4 | 33 288 | 60 469 | 174 963 | 1 783 838 | . |
| May | 26 698 | 4.3 | 9 434 | 58 750 | 165 860 | 1 668 318 | . |
| June | 24 623 | 3.9 | — | 53 832 | 141 103 | 1 538 066 | 10.0 |
| July | 26 594 | 4.3 | — | 49 138 | 126 753 | 1 451 922 | . |
| Aug. | 23 205 | 3.7 | — | 47 946 | 122 600 | 1 341 206 | . |
| Sept. | 35 642 | 5.6 | 546 | 43 975 | 128 447 | 1 271 847 | 8.2 |
| Oct. | 34 809 | 5.4 | 4 506 | 45 235 [r] | 138 479 | 1 230 171 | . |
| Nov. | 48 879 | 7.6 | 7 965 | 46 678 | 144 672 | 1 316 165 | . |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 615 [6] | | . | . | . | 14 855 [6] | |

For an explanation of the Roman numerals used in this table, see p. 91.

[1] Pre-war figures are official estimates. [2] Prior to 1947, applicants for work registered. [3] Prior to Oct. 1944, voluntary unemployment insurance statistics. [4] Census of 26 April. [5] Census of 1 Oct. [6] Average for 1949. [7] June 1949. [8] Federal area. [9] Public relief fund statistics. [10] Labour registration statistics. [11] Prior to 1945, applicants for work registered. [12] Figures prior to Sept. 1948 included all unemployed persons available for work under Order No. 3 of the Allied Control Authority, whether actually seeking work or not. [13] Jan.-Aug. [14] Mar.-Dec.

## TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT *(cont.)*

| Date | Europe *(cont.)* | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Ireland | | | Italy | Luxembourg | Netherlands |
| | II | | V | V | [1] | V |
| | Unemployed (insured) | | Applicants for work registered | Unemployed (registered) | Unemployed | Unemployed (registered) |
| | | % | | | | |
| 1937 | . | . | 81 760 | 874 000 | 18 | 368 904 |
| 1938 | . | . | 88 714 | 810 000 | 92 | 353 663 |
| 1939 | 55 165 | 15.6 | 93 074 | . | 420 | 295 630 |
| 1941 | 50 967 | 14.6 | 74 656 | . | . | . |
| 1942 | 48 846 | 14.2 | 76 887 | . | . | . |
| 1943 | 41 194 | 12.5 | 66 884 | . | . | . |
| 1944 | 36 263 | 11.3 | 59 047 | . | . | . |
| 1945 | 33 964 | 10.6 | 58 999 | . | . | 137 260 [2] |
| 1946 | 35 067 | 10.6 | 59 726 | . | 15 | 88 742 |
| 1947 | 33 266 | 9.3 | 55 623 | 1 620 000 | 50 | 45 889 |
| 1948 | 35 129 | 9.4 | 61 203 | 1 748 000 [3] | 17 | 42 422 |
| 1949 | 34 906 | 9.0 | 60 606 | 1 672 708 | 18 | 62 335 |
| 1949 : Nov. | 31 390 | 8.1 | 59 092 | 1 592 248 | 31 | 67 252 |
| Dec. | 29 708 | 7.6 | 58 621 | 1 792 863 | 35 | 87 862 |
| 1950 : Jan. | 36 270 | 9.4 | 69 776 | 1 839 309 | 82 | 107 663 |
| Feb. | 38 030 | 9.8 | 72 098 | 1 785 927 | 85 | 104 762 |
| Mar. | 36 414 | 9 4 | 67 328 | 1 698 953 | 33 | 89 309 |
| April | 35 224 | 9.1 | 66 230 | 1 690 247 | 27 | 87 549 |
| May | 32 110 | 7.9 | 59 026 | 1 581 608 | 30 | 76 057 |
| June | 26 831 | 6.6 | 40 699 | 1 444 825 | 24 | 64 242 |
| July | 25 267 | 6.2 | 38 439 | 1 481 350 | 24 | 60 560 |
| Aug. | 25 949 | 6.4 | 38 756 | 1 468 337 | 24 | 61 279 |
| Sept. | 24 807 | 6.1 | 38 528 | 1 441 671 | 20 | 55 134 |
| Oct. | 26 341 | 6.5 | 40 428 | 1 511 907 | ... | 58 816 |
| Nov. | 28 543 | 7.0 | 54 326 | ... | ... | ... |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 389 [4] | | . | . | . | . |

| Date | Europe *(cont.)* | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Norway | | Portugal | Spain | Sweden | |
| | V | | V | V | IV | |
| | Unemployed (registered) | | Unemployed (registered) | Unemployed | Unemployed (trade unionists) | |
| | | % | | | | % |
| 1937 | 29 881 | . | 17 158 [5] | . | 67 351 | 10.8 |
| 1938 | 30 296 | . | 16 570 [5] | . | 66 990 | 10.9 |
| 1939 | 28 251 | . | 17 885 [5] | . | 63 722 [6] | 9.2 [6] |
| 1941 | 19 181 [7] | 2.7 [7] | 13 626 [5] | 450 014 | 85 018 | 11.3 |
| 1942 | 4 747 | 0.7 | 10 185 [5] | 294 530 | 56 938 | 7.5 |
| 1943 | 437 | 0.1 | 4 968 [5] | 225 493 | 43 950 | 5.7 |
| 1944 | — | — | 3 588 [5] | 169 525 | 39 123 | 4.9 |
| 1945 | 9 172 [8] | 1.6 [8] | 3 130 | 147 946 | 36 272 | 4.5 |
| 1946 | 12 246 | 2.0 | 2 387 | 178 165 | 27 554 | 3.2 |
| 1947 | 8 514 | 1.2 | 1 799 | 138 771 | 24 446 | 2.8 |
| 1948 | 9 026 | 1.3 | 1 494 | 117 020 | 25 747 | 2.8 |
| 1949 | 7 715 | 1.0 | 1 586 | 160 056 | 26 217 | 2.7 |
| 1949 : Nov | 8 525 | 1.0 | 1 855 | 169 300 | 22 490 | 2.3 |
| Dec. | 12 039 | 1.6 | 1 896 | 161 006 | 48 191 | 4.9 |
| 1950 : Jan. | 16 652 | 2.2 | ... | 160 756 | 43 335 | 4.4 |
| Feb. | 15 686 | 2.0 | ... | 162 654 | 39 629 | 4 0 |
| Mar. | 14 933 | 1.9 | ... | 161 479 | 29 506 | 3.0 |
| April | 10 627 | 1.4 | ... | 170 729 | 21 000 | 2.1 |
| May | 4 945 | 0.6 | ... | 169 161 | 14 784 | 1.5 |
| June | 2 823 | 0.3 | ... | 154 578 | 14 948 | 1.5 |
| July | 2 354 | 0.3 | ... | 154 232 | 15 078 | 1.5 |
| Aug. | 3 846 | 0.5 | ... | 162 767 | 13 051 | 1.3 |
| Sept. | 4 086 | 0.6 | ... | 167 597 | 10 943 | 1.1 |
| Oct. | 6 556 | 0.8 | ... | 174 683 | 11 018 [9] | 1.1 [9] |
| Nov. | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | . | | . | . | 976 [9] | |

For an explanation of the Roman numerals used in this table, see p. 91.

[1] Unemployment relief statistics. [2] June-Dec. [3] Jan.-June, Oct.-Dec. [4] Insurance year ended Oct. 1949. [5] Dec. [6] Since Jan. 1939, including agricultural workers. [7] Up to 1940, applicants; since the introduction of an unemployment insurance scheme in 1941, percentages obtained by relating registered unemployed to total insured; figures for the war years are incomplete. [8] Finnmark and evacuated communes in Troms excluded during the years 1945 to 1947. [9] Average for 1949.

## TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT *(concl.)*

| Date | Europe *(concl.)* | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Switzerland | | United Kingdom | | | |
| | II | V | V | | | |
| | Unemployed (insured) [1] | Wholly unemployed | Unemployed (insured) | | | |
| | | | Wholly [2] | | Temporarily | |
| | % | | | % | | % |
| 1937 | 10.0 | 57 949 | 1 324 027 | 8.5 | 205 063 | 1.5 |
| 1938 | 8.6 | 52 590 | 1 487 363 | 9.5 | 380 332 | 2.5 |
| 1939 | 6.5 | 36 663 | 1 259 559 | 8.0 | 220 765 | 1.5 |
| 1941 | 2.0 | 9 095 | 237 827 [3] | 1.5 | 61 446 [3] | 0.5 |
| 1942 | 1.9 | 8 841 | 110 628 | 1.0 | 8 489 | — |
| 1943 | 1.4 | 6 058 | 82 758 | 0.5 | 2 780 | — |
| 1944 | 1.6 | 6 533 | 75 613 | 0.5 | 2 316 | — |
| 1945 | 1.6 | 6 474 | 158 046 | 1.0 | 1 931 | — |
| 1946 | 1.0 | 4 262 | 390 106 | 2.5 | 4 058 | — |
| 1947 | 0.8 | 3 473 | 342 295 | 2.0 | 156 028 | 1.0 |
| 1948 | 0.6 | 2 971 | 325 818 [4] | 1.5 | 8 555 [4] | — |
| 1949 | 1.6 | 8 059 | 328 426 | 1.6 | 9 571 | — |
| 1949: Nov. | 1.4 | 10 786 | 343 706 | 1.6 | 6 886 | — |
| Dec. | 3.8 | 17 830 | 352 853 | 1.7 | 7 875 | — |
| 1950: Jan. | 4.9 | 30 177 | 395 197 | 1.9 | 8 686 | — |
| Feb. | 4.2 | 20 440 | 392 753 | 1.9 | 10 605 | — |
| Mar. | 2.3 | 10 840 | 368 523 | 1.8 | 8 981 | — |
| April | 1.7 | 9 222 | 347 165 | 1.7 | 10 156 | — |
| May | 1.2 | 5 880 | 329 675 | 1.6 | 11 519 | — |
| June | 0.8 | 4 393 | 297 622 | 1.4 | 10 137 | — |
| July | 0.7 | 3 522 | 286 143 | 1.4 | 10 752 | — |
| Aug. | 0.6 | 3 091 | 303 443 | 1.5 | 9 447 | — |
| Sept. | 0.5 | 2 797 | 300 964 | 1.4 | 7 384 | — |
| Oct. | 0.5 | 3 232 | 319 894 | 1.5 | 7 138 | — |
| Nov. | 0.9 | 6 219 | 320 465 | 1.5 | 5 624 | — |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 548 [5] | . | 20 970 [6] | | | |

| Date | Oceania | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Australia | | Hawaii | | New Zealand | |
| | IV [7] | | I [8] | | II | V |
| | Unemployed | | Unemployed (estimated) | | Unemployed [9] | Unemployed (registered) |
| | % | | | % | | |
| 1937 | 9.3 | . | . | . | . | . |
| 1938 | 8.7 | . | . | . | . | . |
| 1939 | 9.7 | . | 10 000 | 5.9 | 6 264 [10] | . |
| 1941 | 3.7 | . | 6 500 | 3.5 | 2 031 | . |
| 1942 | 1.6 | . | 2 430 | 1.2 | 810 | . |
| 1943 | 1.1 | . | 1 886 | 0.9 | 405 | . |
| 1944 | 1.2 | . | 1 600 | 0.8 | 329 | . |
| 1945 | 1 2 | . | 1 500 | 0.7 | 270 | . |
| 1946 | 1.4 | 7 603 | 2 133 | 1.1 | 172 | 386 |
| 1947 | 1.2 | 6 684 | 2 953 | 1.6 | 47 | 92 |
| 1948 | 0.9 | 2 629 | 8 741 | 4.5 | 33 | 67 |
| 1949 | 1.9 | ... | 25 224 | 12.9 | 48 | 5 |
| 1949: Nov. | 0.8 | 1 240 | 33 952 | 17.5 | 51 | 53 |
| Dec. | . | 1 502 | 32 432 | 16.7 | 30 | 44 |
| 1950: Jan. | . | 1 804 | 33 451 | 17.3 | 26 | 39 |
| Feb. | 0.8 | 2 013 | 32 086 | 16.6 | 19 | 30 |
| Mar. | . | 2 111 | 29 985 | 15.6 | 12 | 21 |
| April | . | 1 902 | 27 969 | 14.6 | 12 | 36 |
| May | 0.8 | 1 289 | 25 261 | 13.4 | 16 | 55 |
| June | . | 1 226 | 23 132 | 12.0 | 18 | 77 |
| July | . | 1 340 [7] | 17 908 | 9.2 | 24 | 47 |
| Aug. | 0.8 | 1 245 | 18 332 | 9.5 | 25 | 37 |
| Sept. | . | ... | 17 649 | 9.1 | 33 | 35 |
| Oct. | . | ... | 16 296 | 8.4 | 30 | 36 |
| Nov. | ... | ... | 16 155 | 8.4 | ... | ... |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 761 [5] | . | 195 [5] | | . | . |

For an explanation of the Roman numerals used in this table, see p. 91.

[1] Wholly unemployed. [2] Including casuals. [3] From the beginning of 1941 to the end of 1947, excluding persons classified as unsuitable for ordinary employment. [4] July-Dec. With the introduction in July 1948 of the National Insurance Acts, the coverage of the series has been extended to include all registered unemployed, with the exception of registered severely disabled persons unlikely to obtain work other than under special conditions. [5] Average for 1949. [6] July 1948. [7] Unemployment benefit statistics. [8] For the period 1939-1947, annual estimates: June. [9] Persons in receipt of unemployment benefit. [10] April-Dec.

## TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT IN GENERAL

*Indices of numbers employed*

| Date | Africa | | America | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Union of South Africa | | Canada | | United States | | |
| | Europeans | Total | | | B.L.S. [1] | B.C. [2] | |
| | IV (A/B) | | IV (A) | I | IV (A/B) | I | |
| | M.I.T. [3] | | M.I.T.C. [3] | A.M.I.T.C. | M.I.T.C. | A.M.I.T.C. | |
| | W.S. | | W.S. | W.S. [4] | W.S. | [4] | |
| 1937 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | . | 100.0 | 100.0 | |
| 1938 | 103.7 | 104.9 | 98.0 | . | 94.1 | 95.5 | |
| 1939 | 105.5 | 105.8 | 99.8 | . | 98.6 | 98.8 | |
| 1941 | 110.1 | 117.6 | 133.5 | *98.1* [5] | 117.7 | 108.7 | |
| 1942 | 111.9 | 120.3 | 152.2 | *98.8* | 129.2 | 116.1 | |
| 1943 | 112.6 | 116.0 | 161.3 | *100.0* | 136.9 | 117.6 | |
| 1944 | 113.5 | 117.1 | 160.4 | *102.7* | 135.0 | 116.5 | |
| 1945 | 116.1 | 121.2 | 153.5 | 100.0 [6] | 130.4 | 114.1 | |
| 1946 | 121.8 | 124 5 | 151 8 | *107.5* | 134.8 | 119.3 | |
| 1947 | 125.3 | 127.0 | 164.7 | *111.2* | 141.2 | 125.3 | |
| 1948 | 129.4 | 128.6 | 171.6 | *112.8* | 143.9 | 128.2 | |
| 1949 | 133.1 | 134.1 | 172.0 | *115.1* | 140.0 | 126.8 | |
| 1949 : Nov. | 133.1 | 135.1 | 176.9 | . | 139.3 | 128.5 | |
| Dec. | 132.8 | 134.4 | 170.0 | . | 142.2 | 126.5 | |
| 1950 : Jan. | 133.0 | 133.6 | 164.1 | . | 137.1 | 123.0 | |
| Feb. | 134.1 | 135.9 | 163.5 | . | 135.6 | 123.0 | |
| Mar. | 134.2 | 138.2 | 164.7 | *110.9* | 137.7 | 124.3 | |
| April | 134.2 | 138.5 | 165.4 | . | 139.7 | 126.7 | |
| May | 134.9 | 139.4 | 172.1 | . | 141.0 | 129.0 | |
| June | 134.8 | 138.1 | 177.3 | *110.8* | 143.1 | 132.8 | |
| July | 134.5 | 136.7 | 179.1 | . | 143.6 | 132.2 | |
| Aug. | 134.4 | 136.3 | 180.8 [7] | *120.7* | 146.8 [7] | 134.7 | |
| Sept. | 134.5 | 135.8 | 184.0 | . | 148.7 | 132.2 | |
| Oct. | 134.2 | 135.5 | 184.5 [8] | . | 149.4 | 133.4 | |
| Nov. | ... | ... | ... | *117.5* | 149.0 [8] | 132.3 | |
| Persons cov. (thousands) [7] | 219 | 813 | 1 936 [8] | 4 326 | .../30 718 | 46 300 | |

| Date | America (*concl.*) | | | | Asia | Europe |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Argentina (Buenos Aires) | Colombia (Central zone) | Peru | Puerto Rico | Japan | Austria |
| | IV (A) | IV (B) | IV (B) | I | I | II |
| | I.T.C. | M.I.T. [3] | A.M.I. | A.M.I.T.C. | A.M.I.T.C. | A.M.I.T.C. |
| | W. | W. | W. | W.S. [4] | W.S. [4] | W.S. |
| 1937 | 100.0 | . | . | . | . | 100.0 |
| 1938 | 102.7 | 100.0 [9] | . | . | . | . |
| 1939 | 104.8 | *94.2* | 100.0 | . | . | . |
| 1941 | 107.1 | *85.5* | *105.4* | . | . | . |
| 1942 | 111.5 | *95.2* | *95.6* | . | . | . |
| 1943 | 116.6 | *101.9* | *90.4* | . | . | . |
| 1944 | 123.1 | *123.9* | *86.2* | . | . | . |
| 1945 | 123.0 | *128.8* | *77.8* | . | . | . |
| 1946 | ... | *139.9* | *74.4* | 100.0 [10] | . | 125.0 |
| 1947 | ... | ... | ... | *104.6* | 100.0 [11] | 134.6 |
| 1948 | ... | ... | ... | *105.0* | *100.0* | 136.6 |
| 1949 | ... | ... | ... | *106.5* | *104.4* | 137.0 |
| 1949 : Nov. | . | . | . | *104.8* | *107.8* | 140.4 |
| Dec. | . | . | . | *104.4* | *105.9* | 135.2 |
| 1950 : Jan. | . | . | . | *101.5* | *96.1* | 131.2 |
| Feb. | . | . | . | *111.1* | *97.3* | 130.7 |
| Mar. | . | . | . | *117.7* | *98.3* | 134.1 |
| April | . | . | . | *117.1* | *101.5* | 136.4 |
| May | . | . | . | *116.2* | *105.6* | 138.1 |
| June | . | . | . | *116.6* | *110.4* | 139.2 |
| July | . | . | . | *113.5* | *109.8* | 139.7 |
| Aug. | . | . | . | *110.6* | *105.8* | 140.6 |
| Sept. | . | . | . | ... | *105.8* | 141.2 |
| Oct. | . | . | . | ... | *108.4* | 141.4 |
| Nov. | . | . | . | ... | ... | 139.7 |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | . | 14 | 212 | 585 | 34 880 | 1 373 |

I. Labour force sample surveys. II. Compulsory social insurance statistics (sickness, accidents, etc.). III. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics. IV. Statistics of establishments : IV (A), all establishments of a given importance ; IV (B), representative sample of establishments : IV (A/B), type B series (for the recent period) linked to a type A series. A. Agriculture. M. Mines. I. Industry (manufacturing industries and construction). T. Transport. C. Commerce. W. Wage earners. S. Salaried employees.

[1] Bureau of Labor Statistics. [2] Bureau of the Census. Indices up to 1939, based on estimates prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. [3] Including logging. [4] Including all categories of workers in the labour force. [5] Up to 1944, the indices are based on estimates. [6] Nov. [7] Figure of persons covered relates to the date shown as base, unless otherwise specified. [8] Average for 1947. [9] May. [10] Mar. [11] Oct.

## TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT IN GENERAL *(concl.)*

*Indices of numbers employed*

| Date | Europe *(cont.)* | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | France | Germany [1] | Ireland | Luxembourg | Netherlands | Norway |
| | IV (A) | [2] | II | IV (A) | II | III [3] |
| | M.I.T.C. | M.I.T.C. | A.M.I.T.C. | M.I.T.C. [3] | M.I.T.C. [3] | A. [3] M. [3] I.T.C. |
| | W.S. | W.S. | W.S. | W. | W.S. | W.S. |
| 1937 | **100.0** | . | **100.0** | **100.0** | **100.0** | **100.0** |
| 1938 | 102.7 | . | 100.2 | 101.7 | 104.3 | 100.0 |
| 1939 | 104.0 [4] | . | 100.5 | 99.3 | 108.8 | 105.5 |
| 1941 | 91.7 | . | 96.6 | . | 118.2 | **100.0** |
| 1942 | 93.2 [5] | . | 96.1 | . | 114.6 | *102.3* |
| 1943 | 97.0 [6] | . | 95.9 | . | 109.6 | *100.9* |
| 1944 | 92.1 | . | 97.8 | . | ... | *97.6* |
| 1945 | 93.8 | . | 100.5 | . | ... | *85.5* [7] |
| 1946 | 99.0 | . | 106.7 | 88.5 [8] | 117.9 | *97.7* |
| 1947 | 104.8 | . | 112.9 | 92.3 | 133.0 | *104.7* |
| 1948 | 107.7 | **100.0** [9] | 117.1 | 101.5 | 147.5 | *106.4* [10] |
| 1949 | 109.5 | *103.0* | . | 108.2 | ... | *108.7* |
| 1949 : Nov. | . | . | . | 109.1 | . | *110.9* |
| Dec. | . | *103.8* | . | 109.2 | . | *108.7* |
| 1950 : Jan. | 109.6 | . | . | 104.7 | . | *109.4* |
| Feb. | . | . | . | 104.8 | . | *111.1* |
| Mar. | . | *102.2* | . | 106,1 | . | *108.7* |
| April | 109.3 | . | . | 107.3 | . | *107.6* |
| May | . | . | . | 107.4 | . | *108.9* |
| June | . | *106.6* | . | 107.7 | . | *111.0* |
| July | 109.9 | . | . | 107.1 | . | *111.1* |
| Aug. | . | . | . | 107.5 | . | *111.5* |
| Sept. | . | *110.4* | . | ... | . | *111.9* |
| Oct. | 110.7 | . | . | ... | . | *112.0* |
| Nov. | . | . | . | ... | . | ... |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 7 050 | 11 922 | 415 | 33 | 1 273 | 535 [11] |

| Date | Europe *(concl.)* | | | Oceania | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Poland | United Kingdom [12] | | Australia | Hawaii | New Zealand |
| | II | II | II | III (A B) | I | IV (A) |
| | M.I.T.C. | M.I.T.C. | A.M.I.T.C. | M.I.T.C. [13] | A.M.I.T.C. | M.I.T.C. |
| | W.S. | W.S. [14] | [15] | W.S. | [16] | W.S. |
| 1937 | . | **100.0** [17] | **100.0** | . | . | . |
| 1938 | . | 98.3 | 98.4 | . | . | . |
| 1939 | . | 103.1 | 101.9 | **100.0** [18] | **100.0** [17] | . |
| 1941 | . | 103.1 | 100.5 | *112.3* [8] | *110.6* | . |
| 1942 | . | 104.7 | 101.2 | *111.1* | *121.5* | . |
| 1943 | . | 101.4 | 98.7 | *110.7* | *127.8* | . |
| 1944 | . | 98.0 | 96.8 | *110.5* | *130.3* | . |
| 1945 | . | 93.8 | 92.9 | *110.8* | *133.5* | . |
| 1946 | . | 98.5 | 98.6 | *121.6* | . | . |
| 1947 | **100.0** | 105.6 | 105.6 | *131.4* | . | **100.0** |
| 1948 | *111.2* | **100.0** | **100.0** | *137.0* | *114.9* | *103.1* |
| 1949 | ... | *101.1* | *101.0* | *140.8* | *105.9* | *105.5* |
| 1949 : Nov. | ... | *102.0* | *101.7* | *143.8* | *100.1* | *106.1* |
| Dec. | ... | *101.6* | *101.3* | *144.3* | *101.1* | *107.8* |
| 1950 : Jan. | ... | *101.8* | *101.5* | *144.3* | ... | *107.4* |
| Feb. | ... | *101.7* | *101.5* | *145.4* | ... | *108.1* |
| Mar. | ... | *101.7* | *101.5* | *146.1* | ... | *108.0* |
| April | ... | *102.1* | *101.8* | *146.3* | ... | *107.7* |
| May | ... | *102.2* | *101.8* | *147.0* | ... | ... |
| June | ... | *102.3* | *102.0* | *147.2* | ... | ... |
| July | ... | *102.3* | *102.0* | *147.3* | ... | ... |
| Aug. | ... | *102.6* | *102.2* | *147.6* | ... | ... |
| Sept. | ... | *102.8* | *102.4* | *148.2* | ... | ... |
| Oct. | ... | *102.9* | *102.5* | *147.0* | ... | ... |
| Nov. | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 2 941 | 13 720 [19] | 17 665 [19] | 1 730 | 160 | 427 |

For an explanation of the Roman numerals and other abbreviations used in this table, see p. 95.

[1] Federal area. [2] Labour registration statistics. [3] Before 1949, statistics of establishments. [4] Jan.-Aug. [5] Jan.-June, Sept. and Dec. [6] Annual figures; commencing 1943, average of quarterly figures, except 1944 : Mar. and Dec.; and 1945 : Mar., June and Sept. [7] Finnmark and evacuated communes in Troms excluded in 1945. [8] June-Dec. [9] June. [10] Statistics of compulsory sickness insurance linked up with statistics of unemployment insurance of the preceding period. [11] Average for 1941. [12] Excluding Northern Ireland. [13] Including forestry, fishing and trapping. [14] From 1937 to 1948, estimated number of employed wage and salary earners subject to the Unemployment Insurance Acts; since June 1948 (introduction of National Insurance), estimated total of employed wage and salary earners aged 15 and over. [15] From 1937 to 1948, estimated total of persons in employment (men aged 14-64 and women 14-59) excluding indoor private domestic service; since June 1948 (introduction of National Insurance), estimated total of persons aged 15 and over in employment. [16] Covering persons aged 16 and over. [17] Annual figures: June. [18] July. [19] June 1937.

## TABLE III. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT IN MANUFACTURING

### (a) *Indices of numbers employed*

| Date | Africa | | America | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Union of South Africa | | Canada | United States | Argentina | Chile | Colombia (Bogotá) | Dominican Republic |
| | Europeans | Total | | | | | | |
| | IV (A/B) [1] | | IV (A) | IV (A/B) | IV (B) [2] | IV (B) | IV (B) | IV (A) |
| | W.S. | | W.S. | W. | W. | W. | W. | W.S. |
| 1937 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | . | 100.0 |
| 1938 | 101.6 | 103.9 | 97.0 | 85.1 | 104.3 | 105.5 | 100.0 [3] | 107.0 |
| 1939 | 101.1 | 104.3 | 98.2 | 94.5 | 108.5 | 108.1 | *90.0* | 111.8 |
| 1941 | 102.2 | 117.0 | 147.2 | 125.5 | 117.0 | 135.8 | *83.1* | 114.6 |
| 1942 | 102.6 | 124.5 | 180.5 | 148.3 | 123.6 | 133.7 | *96.7* | 123.5 |
| 1943 | 102.2 | 129.1 | 197.7 | 173.3 | 126.1 | 127.0 | *105.1* | 130.5 |
| 1944 | 103.8 | 137.5 | 196.2 | 168.6 | 131.1 | 125.6 | *135.8* | 139.3 |
| 1945 | 106.7 | 138.6 | 178.0 | 148.4 | 132.5 | 127.4 | *142.6* | 131.4 |
| 1946 | 112.8 | 142.5 | 162.8 | 139.7 | 136.9 | 132.0 | *153.8* | ... |
| 1947 | 118.0 | 148.0 | 174.0 | 147.6 | 146.9 | 141.6 | ... | ... |
| 1948 | 122.8 | 156.1 | 179.2 | 146.7 | 166.1 | 134.0 | ... | ... |
| 1949 | 125.1 | 160.6 | 179.4* | 133.8 | 164.4 | 137.8 | ... | ... |
| 1949: Nov. | 123.2 | 158.4 | 178.8 | 130.3 | ... | 139.5 | . | . |
| Dec. | 122.2 | 156.5 | 174.5 | 132.7 | ... | 135.7 | . | . |
| 1950: Jan. | 122.1 | 154.9 | 173.9 | 132.1 | ... | 140.8 | . | . |
| Feb. | 123.6 | 159.9 | 174.6 | 132.2 | ... | 137.4 | . | . |
| Mar. | 124.1 | 161.4 | 175.2 | 133.3 | ... | 153.1 | . | . |
| April | 123.5 | 159.2 | 175.5 | 133.8 | ... | 133.5 | . | . |
| May | 124.1 | 160.4 | 178.5 | 136.6 | ... | ... | . | . |
| June | 124.4 | 161.0 | 181.8 | 139.3 | ... | ... | . | . |
| July | 124.1 | 160.3 | 183.0 | 140.2 | ... | ... | . | . |
| Aug. | 124.1 | 160.8 | 185.7 * | 147.7 * | ... | ... | . | . |
| Sept. | 124.8 | 162.1 | 188.4 * | 150.2 | ... | ... | . | . |
| Oct. | 124.6 | 162.9 | ... | 151.5 | ... | ... | . | . |
| Nov. | ... | ... | ... | 150.1 | ... | ... | . | . |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 108 | 270 | 1 046 [4] | .../8 666 | . | 18 | 4 | 32 |

| Date | America (*concl.*) | | | Asia | | | Europe |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mexico | Puerto Rico | Uruguay | India [5] | Israel | Japan | Denmark |
| | IV (B) | I | IV (B) | IV (A) | IV (B) | I | IV (A) |
| | W. | W.S. | W. | W. | W.S. | W.S. | W. |
| 1937 | 100.0 | . | 100.0 | 100.0 | . | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 1938 | 101.2 | . | 100.2 | 103.7 | . | 110.1 | 100.2 |
| 1939 | 111.6 | . | 111.7 | 104.5 | 100.0 | 121.1 | 109.4 |
| 1941 | 119.3 | . | 120.4 | 128.7 | *135* | 128.0 | 104.2 |
| 1942 | 126.6 | . | 124.1 | 136.2 | *173* | 141.8 | 111.0 |
| 1943 | 129.4 | . | 129.4 | 145.4 | *202* | 160.7 | 115.9 |
| 1944 | 133 9 | . | 135.5 | 150.5 | *192* | 181.1 | 116.8 |
| 1945 | 133.8 | . | 133.8 | 157.7 | *189* | . | 108.7 |
| 1946 | 139.2 | . | 144.5 | 147.0 | *180* | . | 121.5 |
| 1947 | 136.9 | 100.0 | 149.6 | ... | *154* | 100.0 [6] | 129.5 |
| 1948 | ... | *98.9* | 152.6 | ... | *132* | *92.7* | 136.2 |
| 1949 | ... | ... | ... | ... | *163* | *89.7* | ... |
| 1949: Nov. | ... | *103.1* | . | . | *172* | *87.7* | . |
| Dec. | ... | ... | ... | . | *172* | *88.7* | . |
| 1950: Jan. | ... | ... | . | . | *170* * | *83.5* | . |
| Feb. | ... | ... | . | . | *173* | *84.0* | . |
| Mar. | ... | ... | ... | . | *180* | *81.3* | . |
| April | ... | ... | . | . | *182* | *85.0* | . |
| May | ... | ... | . | . | *188* | *86.0* | . |
| June | ... | ... | ... | . | *190* | *88.9* | . |
| July | ... | ... | . | . | *190* | ... | . |
| Aug. | ... | ... | . | . | *185* | ... | . |
| Sept. | ... | ... | . | . | *184* | ... | . |
| Oct. | ... | ... | . | . | ... | ... | . |
| Nov. | ... | ... | . | . | ... | ... | . |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 105 | 95 | 56 | 1 676 | 7 | 4 060 [7] | 167 |

I. Labour force sample surveys. II. Compulsory social insurance statistics (sickness, accidents, etc.). III. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics. IV. Statistics of establishments; IV (A), all establishments of a given importance; IV (B), representative sample of establishments; IV (A/B), type B series (for the recent period) linked to a type A series. W. Wage earners. S. Salaried employees.

[1] Including building. [2] Including mining. [3] May. [4] Average for 1947. [5] Former British India. [6] Oct. 1947 = 100; before Oct. 1947, wage earners only, based on statistics of establishments. [7] Oct. 1947.

TABLE III. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT IN MANUFACTURING *(cont.)*
(a) *Indices of numbers employed* (concl.)

| Date | Europe *(cont.)* | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Finland | France | Germany[1] | Ireland | Italy | Netherlands | |
| | IV(B) | IV (A) | [2] | IV (A/B) [3] | IV (A) | II | IV (B) |
| | W. | W.S. | W.S. | W.S. | W. | W.S. | W. |
| 1937 | 100.0 | 100.0 | . | 100.0 | . | 100.0 | . |
| 1938 | 102.9 | 103.2 [4] | . | 100.1 | . | 103.2 | . |
| 1939 | 93.6 | 105.4 | . | 101.4 | . | 109.3 | . |
| 1941 | 100.0 [5] | 90.3 | . | 96.3 | . | 113.2 | . |
| 1942 | *95.7* | 96.0 [6] | . | 92.6 | . | 108.8 | . |
| 1943 | *96.1* | 90.9 [7] | . | 93.3 | . | 98.3 | . |
| 1944 | *90.9* | 90.9 | . | 95.5 | . | . | . |
| 1945 | *108.2* | 90.4 | . | 101.5 | . | . | . |
| 1946 | *114.3* | 98.0 | . | 110.4 | . | 113.1 | *85.3* |
| 1947 | *122.6* | 106.3 | . | 117.9 | 100.0 | 134.1 | 100.0 |
| 1948 | *129.2* | 110.3 | 100.0 [8] | 124 0 | *98.3* | 150.1 | *109.9* |
| 1949 | *129.9* | 112.7 | *110.9* | 127.4 | *97.1* | ... | *115.3* |
| 1949: Nov. | . | . | . | . | *95.8* | . | . |
| Dec. | . | . | *113.8* | . | *95.2* | . | *117.1* |
| 1950 Jan. | *131.4* | 113.4 | . | . | *94.5* | . | . |
| Feb. | . | . | . | . | *95.0* | . | . |
| Mar. | . | . | *111.3* | ... | *95.7* | . | *118.0* |
| April | *133.7* | 113.2 | . | . | *96.2* | . | . |
| May | . | . | . | . | *96.2* | . | . |
| June | . | . | *115.6* | ... | *96.0* | . | *119.3* |
| July | *137.3* | 113.4 | . | . | ... | . | . |
| Aug. | . | . | . | . | ... | . | . |
| Sept. | . | . | *122.0* | ... | ... | . | ... |
| Oct. | *135.6* | 114.4 | . | . | ... | . | . |
| Nov. | . | . | . | . | ... | . | . |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 74 [9] | 3 500 | 4 842 | 100 | 1 724 | 625 | 534 |

| Date | Europe *(concl.)* | | | | Oceania | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Norway | Sweden | Switzerland | United Kingdom [10] | Australia | New Zealand | |
| | III [3] [11] | IV (A/B) [3] | IV (B) [12] | II [13] | IV (A/B) | IV (A) | IV (A) |
| | W. | W. | W. | W.S. | W.S. | W. | W.S.[14] |
| 1937 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | . |
| 1938 | 97.3 | 101.3 | 99.7 | 92.8 | 104.5 | 99.7 | . |
| 1939 | 100.2 | 105.1 | 98.3 | 99.4 | 105.7 | 105.8 | . |
| 1941 | 100.0 | 102.4 | 107.9 | 108.4 | 129.5 | 116.3 | . |
| 1942 | *102.4* | 108.1 | 109.6 | 113.4 | 139.0 | 113.5 | . |
| 1943 | *103.2* | 111.4 | 104.9 | 112.3 | 144.0 | 116.7 | . |
| 1944 | *101.2* | 112.5 | 99.7 | 107.1 | 141.9 | 121.0 | . |
| 1945 | *93.5* | 118.8 | 109.6 | 98.2 | 137.5 | 124.9 | . |
| 1946 | *110.6* | 123.5 | 122.9 | 94.7 | 145.0 | 130.4 | . |
| 1947 | *124.1* | 124.4 [15] | 133.0 | 102.0 | 153.1 | 136.8 | 100.0 |
| 1948 | 100.0 [16] | 125.5 | 135.1 | 100.0 | 159.9 | ... | *102.7* |
| 1949 | *106.2* | 126.3 | 126.6 | *102.2* | 161.7 | ... | *105.5* |
| 1949: Nov. | *107.9* | 127.7 | . | *103.6* | 165.5 | . | *107.3* |
| Dec. | *106.6* | 125.7 | 123.2 | *103.3* | 165.0 | . | *107.3* |
| 1950: Jan. | *107.0* | 125.7 | . | *103.8* | 165.8 | . | *104.8* |
| Feb. | *109.2* | 126.3 | . | *103.9* | 167.5 | . | *106.3* |
| Mar. | *108.8* | 127.0 | 120.9 | *103.7* | 168.8 | . | *106.8* |
| April | *107.9* | 126.8 | . | *103.9* | 168.7 | . | *107.1* |
| May | *109.2* | 126.1 | . | *103.9* | 169.6 | . | ... |
| June | *110.5* | . | 122.0 | *103.8* | 170.1 | . | ... |
| July | *109.1* | 125.5 | . | *103.7* | 170.2 | . | ... |
| Aug. | *109.1* | 124.9 | . | *104.2* | 170.4 | . | ... |
| Sept. | *110.2* | 125.8 | 125.5 | *104.9* | 170.8 | . | ... |
| Oct. | *111.1* | 127.5 | . | *105.5* | 170.3 | . | ... |
| Nov. | ... | 128.7 | . | ... | ... | . | ... |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 184 [9] /254 [16] | 528 | 352 [17] | 6572 /7847 | 519 | 85 | 144 |

For an explanation of the Roman numerals and other abbreviations used in this table, see p. 97.

[1] Federal area. [2] Labour registration statistics. [3] Including mining. [4] Jan.-Aug. [5] Commencing 1941, the figures relate to an increased number of establishments. [6] Jan.-June, Sept. and Dec. [7] Annual figures, commencing 1943, averages of quarterly figures, except 1944: Mar. and Dec.; and 1945: Mar., June and Sept. [8] June. [9] Average for 1941. [10] Excluding Northern Ireland; annual figures, June. [11] Before 1941, statistics of establishments; since Mar. 1948, statistics of compulsory health insurance. [12] Including building. [13] From 1937 to 1948, estimated number of employed wage and salary earners subject to the Unemployment Insurance Acts; since June 1948 (introduction of National Insurance), estimated number of employees 15 years and over in employment. [14] Including working proprietors. [15] In 1946 the criterion for inclusion was changed to a minimum of 5 persons occupied in the establishment. [16] Mar. 1948. [17] Average for 1948.

TABLE III. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT IN MANUFACTURING *(concl.)*

(b) *Indices of total hours worked*

| Date | America | | Asia | Europe | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | United States [1] | Argentina | Israel [2] | Denmark | Finland |
| | IV (A/B) | IV (B) [3] | IV (B) | IV (B) | IV (B) |
| | W. | W. | W.S. | W. | W. |
| 1937 | 100.0 | . | . | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 1938 | 78.5 | . | . | 99.4 | 104.9 |
| 1939 | 92.3 | . | 100.0 | 107.7 | 93.7 |
| 1941 | 131.4 | . | *142* | 94.2 | 100.0 [4] |
| 1942 | 161.8 | . | *183* | 101.5 | *97.7* |
| 1943 | 195.4 | 100.0 | *220* | 106.5 | *99.4* |
| 1944 | 190.9 | *103.4* | *211* | 107.7 | *93.9* |
| 1945 | 161.3 | *99.1* | *210* | 94.3 | *110.1* |
| 1946 | 141.9 | *99.8* | *198* | 115.0 | *114.5* |
| 1947 | 154.5 | *106.7* | *173* | 123.0 | *123.1* |
| 1948 | 152.4 | ... | *146* | 132 | *131.5* |
| 1949 | 135.8 | ... | ... | 138* | *129.9* |
| 1949 : Nov. | 132.0 | ... | *193* | 146 | . |
| Dec. | 137.2 | ... | *194* | 150 | . |
| 1950 : Jan. | 135.8 | ... | *192* | 142 [7] | *134.5* |
| Feb. | 135 9 | ... | *192* | 144 [7] | . |
| Mar. | 137.0 | ... | *201* | 148 [7] | . |
| April | 137.5 | ... | *204* | 150 [7] | *137.2* |
| May | 141.2 [7] | ... | *211* | 153 [7] | . |
| June | 146.1 | ... | *208* | 153 [7] | . |
| July | 147.0 | ... | *205* | 106 [7] | *131.0* |
| Aug. | 157.5 | ... | *197* | 145 [7] | . |
| Sept. | 159.5 | ... | *207* | 158 [7] | . |
| Oct. | ... | ... | ... | 158 [7] | *139.2* |
| Nov. | ... | ... | ... | ... | . |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | .../8 666 | . | 7 | . | 74 [5] |

| Date | Europe *(concl.)* | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | France | Ireland [3] [6] | Italy | Norway [3] | Sweden [3] |
| | IV (A) | IV (A) | IV (A) | IV (A) | IV (A) |
| | W.S. | W. | W. | W. | W. |
| 1937 | 100.0 | 100.0 | . | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 1938 | 99.1 [7] | 99.3 | . | 98.1 | 99.7 |
| 1939 | 106.1 | 101.1 | . | 100.8 | 104.1 |
| 1941 | 84.5 | 93.6 | . | 99.1 | 98.0 |
| 1942 | 97.2 [8] | 88.2 | . | 97.6 | 104.3 |
| 1943 | 100.5 [9] | 90.5 | . | 96.6 | 107.9 |
| 1944 | 95.8 | 94.0 | . | 91.6 | 110.0 |
| 1945 | 94.2 | 103.6 | . | 85.7 | 108.7 [10] |
| 1946 | 105.1 | 115.0 | . | 108.9 | 122.3 [11] |
| 1947 | 117.4 | 121.7 | 100.0 | 123.7 | 121.8 |
| 1948 | 121.8 | ... | *96.5* | 131.6 | ... |
| 1949 | 122.1 | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| 1949 : Nov. | . | . | *93.7* | . | . |
| Dec. | . | . | *96.8* | . | . |
| 1950 : Jan. | 124.4 | . | *93.4* | . | . |
| Feb. | . | . | *94.7* | . | . |
| Mar. | . | . | *103.3* | . | . |
| April | 123.8 | . | *96.5* | . | . |
| May | . | . | *99.0* | . | . |
| June | . | . | *94.1* | . | . |
| July | 125.0 | . | ... | . | . |
| Aug. | . | . | ... | . | . |
| Sept. | . | . | ... | . | . |
| Oct. | 127.0 | . | ... | . | . |
| Nov. | . | . | ... | . | . |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 3 500 | 100 | 1 724 | 144 | 536 |

For an explanation of the Roman numerals and other abbreviations used in this table, see p. 97.

[1] Calculated by the I.L.O. by multiplying the index of numbers employed by the index of hours worked per worker. [2] Total number of days worked. [3] Including mining. [4] Commencing 1941, the figures relate to an increased number of establishments. [5] Average for 1941. [6] Week in Oct. of each year. [7] Jan.-Aug. [8] Jan.-June, Sept. and Dec. [9] Annual figures commencing 1943, averages of quarterly figures, except 1944 : Mar. and Dec.; and 1945 : Mar., June and Sept. [10] Figure for 1945 affected by strikes in the engineering industry. [11] In 1946 the criterion for inclusion was changed to a minimum of 5 persons occupied in the establishment.

# Consumer Prices

## INDICES OF GENERAL CONSUMER PRICES AND FOOD PRICES

| Country | Africa | | | | | | America | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Belgian Congo | Egypt | Northern Rhodesia | Southern Rhodesia | Tunis | Union of South Africa | Canada | United States |
| Town or no. of localities | Whole country [1] | Cairo | Whole country | 5 | Tunis | 9 | 64-11 | 56-34 |
| Original base (=100) | July 1935 | June-Aug. 1939 | Aug. 1939 | Aug. 1939 | 1938 | 1938 | 1935-1939 | 1935-1939 |
| *General* | | | | | | | | |
| Composition of the index | *a-c, e* | *a-e* | *a-d* | *a, b, d* [2] | *a* [3] | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* |
| 1937 | . | . | . | 100 | . | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 1938 | . | . | . | 101 | . | 104 | 101 | 98 |
| 1939 | . | 100 [4] | 100 [5] | 100 | . | 104 | 100 | 97 |
| 1940 | . | *113* | . | 101 | . | 107 | 104 | 98 |
| 1941 | . | *138* | . | 105 | . | 112 | 110 | 102 |
| 1942 | . | *184* | . | 111 | . | 122 | 116 | 113 |
| 1943 | . | *242* | *119* [6] | 117 | . | 129 | 117 | 120 |
| 1944 | *197* | *279* | *123* | 122 | . | 133 | 117 | 122 |
| 1945 | *201* | *293* | *126* | 125 | . | 137 | 118 | 125 |
| 1946 | *209* | *287* | *129* | 128 | . | 139 | 122 | 136 |
| 1947 | *228* | *279* | *138* | 132 | . | 145 | 134 | 155 |
| 1948 | *241* | *281* | *142* | 142 | . | 153 | 153 | 167 |
| 1949 | *257* | *278* | *148* | 150 | . | 159 | 159 | 165 |
| 1949 : Nov. | . | *281* | *149* | 156 [7] | . | 159 | 160 | 164 |
| Dec. | . | *281* | *150* | 159 | . | 160 | 160 | 163 |
| 1950 : Jan. | *263* | *282* | *150* | 159 | . | 160 | 159 | 163 |
| Feb. | . | *284* | *151* | 159 | . | 161 | 160 | 162 |
| Mar. | . | *287* | *151* | 160 | . | 162 | 162 | 163 |
| April | *259* | *288* | *152* | 160 | . | 163 | 162 | 163 |
| May | . | *290* | *152* | 160 | . | 165 | 162 | 164 |
| June | . | *290* | *153* | 161 | . | 167 | 163 | 166 |
| July | *258* | *292* | *155* | 163 | . | 166 | 166 | 168 |
| Aug. | . | *295* | *155* | 163 | . | 164 | 167 | 168 |
| Sept. | . | *297* | *155* | 163 | . | 165 | 168 | 169 |
| Oct. | *260* | *304* | *156* | 164 | . | 168 | 169 | 170 |
| Nov. | . | ... | *156* | 164 | . | 168 | 169 | 171 |
| *Food* | | | | | | | | |
| 1937 | . | . [8] | . | . | . | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 1938 | . | . | . | . | 100 | 105 | 101 | 93 |
| 1939 | . | 100 [4] | 100 [5] | 100 [5] | . | 104 | 97 | 90 |
| 1940 | . | *112* | . | . | *122* | 107 | 102 | 92 |
| 1941 | . | *141* | . | *110* | *152* | 115 | 112 | 100 |
| 1942 | . | *194* | . | *116* | *190* | 127 | 123 | 118 |
| 1943 | . | *263* | *120* [6] | *121* | *327* | 138 | 127 | 131 |
| 1944 | *213* | *312* | *126* | *124* | *450* | 144 | 127 | 129 |
| 1945 | *219* | *327* | *135* | *127* | *512* | 147 | 129 | 132 |
| 1946 | *226* | *312* | *140* | *132* | *766* | 151 | 136 | 152 |
| 1947 | *234* | *299* | *151* | *144* | *1 115* | 159 | 155 | 184 |
| 1948 | *250* | *298* [6] | *160* | *163* | *1 672* | 164 | 189 | 200 |
| 1949 | *272* | ... | *171* | *173* | *2 124* | 169 | 197 | 192 |
| 1949 : Nov. | . | *313* | *170* | *188* [7] | *2 319* | 169 | 197 | 191 |
| Dec. | . | ... | *172* | *195* | *2 255* | 169 | 196 | 187 |
| 1950 : Jan. | *279* | ... | *173* | *192* | *2 229* | 171 | 193 | 186 |
| Feb. | . | ... | *175* | *189* | *2 227* | 172 | 195 | 185 |
| Mar. | . | *324* | *175* | *192* | *2 195* | 175 | 198 | 186 |
| April | ... | *325* | *177* | *194* | *2 187* | 176 | 198 | 187 |
| May | . | *327* | *177* | *197* | *2 176* | 181 | 198 | 190 |
| June | . | *326* | *177* | *199* | *2 127* | 186 | 203 | 194 |
| July | ... | *332* | *177* | *201* | *2 130* [7] | 182 | 208 | 199 |
| Aug. | . | *336* | *177* | *201* | *2 148* [7] | 178 | 210 | 198 |
| Sept. | . | *339* | *179* | *201* | *2 191* | 179 | 212 | 198 |
| Oct. | *275* | ... | *179* | *203* | ... | 181 | 213 | 198 |
| Nov. | . | ... | *179* | *204* | ... | 181 | 212 | 199 |

Composition of the indices : *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] European salaried employees only. [2] Since July 1941, *a-e*. [3] Including heating, lighting and soap. [4] June-Aug. [5] Aug. [6] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. [7] Calculated with " seasonal movements eliminated ". [8] Up to 1945, including heating and soap.

## INDICES OF GENERAL CONSUMER PRICES AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*

| Country | America *(cont.)* | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Bolivia | Brazil | British Honduras | British West Indies | | | Chile | Colombia |
| Town or no. of localities | La Paz | São Paulo | Belize | Barbados | Jamaica (Kingston) | St. Vincent | Santiago | Bogotá |
| Original base (=100) | Dec. 1936 | 1939 | Sept. 1939 | Sept. 1939 | Aug. 1939 | Aug. 1939 | Mar. 1928 | Feb. 1937 |
| *General* | | | | | | | | |
| Composition of the index | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* |
| 1937 | 100 | . | . | . | . | . | 100 | 100 |
| 1938 | 131 | . | . | . | . | . | 104 | 113 |
| 1939 | 162 | 100 | 100 [1] | 100 [1] | 100 [2] | 100 [2] | 106 | 118 |
| 1940 | 218 | *105* | . | *120* | *120* | . | 119 | 114 |
| 1941 | 278 | *117* | . | *130* | *135* | . | 137 | 112 |
| 1942 | 361 | *130* | *135* [2] | *151* | *152* | *166* [3] | 173 | 122 |
| 1943 | 441 | *150* | *151* [4] | *165* | *157* | *179* | 201 | 141 |
| 1944 | 470 | *191* | *155* [4] | *178* | *159* | *184* | 224 | 170 |
| 1945 | 496 | *232* | *166* [4] | *187* | *159* | *188* | 244 | 189 |
| 1946 | 533 | *276* | *169* [4] | *207* | *165* | *194* | 283 | 207 |
| 1947 | 642 | *328* | *206* [4] | *226* | *195* | *208* | 378 | 245 |
| 1948 | 718 | *361* | *210* [4] | *232* | *235* | *223* | 446 | 285 |
| 1949 | 768 | *359* | *204* [4] | *229* | *246* | *220* | 529 | 304 |
| 1949 : Nov. | 789 | *362* | . | *224* | *246* | *225* | 571 | 307 |
| Dec. | 805 | *365* | *193* | *228* | *250* | *225* | 568 | 310 |
| 1950 : Jan. | ... | *368* | . | *228* | *250* | *229* | 569 | 310 |
| Feb. | ... | *370* | *204* | *230* | ... | *231* | 561 | 323 |
| Mar. | ... | *373* | *208* | *232* | *253* | *231* | 572 | 335 |
| April | ... | *376* | *202* | *242* | *253* | *228* | 579 | 344 |
| May | ... | *381* | *202* | *242* | *255* | *228* | 585 | 359 |
| June | ... | *379* | *201* | ... | *255* | *228* | 595 | 372 |
| July | ... | *378* | *201* | ... | *256* | *228* | 606 | 386 |
| Aug. | ... | *382* | *202* | ... | *255* | *229* | 615 | 386 |
| Sept. | ... | *393* | *206* | ... | ... | ... | 619 | 385 |
| Oct. | ... | *394* | *213* | ... | ... | *229* | ... | ... |
| Nov. | ... | ... | *221* | ... | ... | *229* | ... | ... |
| *Food* | | | | | | | | |
| 1937 | 100 | . | . | . | . | . | 100 | 100 |
| 1938 | 124 | . | . | . | . | . | 105 | 114 |
| 1939 | 142 | 100 | 100 [1] | 100 [1] | 100 [2] | 100 [2] | 103 | 121 |
| 1940 | 176 | *107* | . | *124* | *124* | . | 120 | 115 |
| 1941 | 248 | *121* | . | *132* | *133* | . | 137 | 111 |
| 1942 | 316 | *133* | *136* [2] | *152* | *144* | ... | 179 | 123 |
| 1943 | 360 | *153* | *156* [4] | *162* | *144* | ... | 212 | 145 |
| 1944 | 405 | *201* | *161* [4] | *164* | *139* | *172* | 227 | 184 |
| 1945 | 424 | *245* | *173* [4] | *165* | *143* | *175* | 242 | 207 |
| 1946 | 472 | *312* | *176* [4] | *176* | *154* | *182* | 281 | 222 |
| 1947 | 623 | *373* | *216* [4] | *213* | *177* | *193* | 377 | 266 |
| 1948 | 690 | *425* | *219* [4] | *224* | *222* | *210* | 439 | 306 |
| 1949 | 733 | *409* | *208* [4] | *218* | *236* | *204* | 504 | 317 |
| 1949 : Nov. | 742 | *414* | . | *215* | *241* | *210* | 550 | 316 |
| Dec. | 756 | *420* | *192* | *217* | *246* | *210* | 544 | 318 |
| 1950 : Jan. | ... | *421* | . | *216* | *246* | *214* | 547 | 320 |
| Feb. | ... | *425* | *205* | *216* | ... | *217* | 531 | 336 |
| Mar. | ... | *429* | *210* | *218* | *253* | *217* | 537 | 353 |
| April | ... | *434* | *197* | *237* | *254* | *213* | 539 | 367 |
| May | ... | *442* | *197* | *238* | *257* | *213* | 546 | 388 |
| June | ... | *439* | *194* | ... | *256* | *213* | 556 | 404 |
| July | ... | *435* | *195* | ... | *256* | *212* | ... | 424 |
| Aug. | ... | *442* | *197* | ... | *254* | *212* | ... | 424 |
| Sept. | ... | *461* | *203* | ... | ... | ... | ... | 423 |
| Oct. | ... | *458* | *211* | ... | ... | *212* | ... | ... |
| Nov. | ... | ... | *221* | ... | ... | *212* | ... | ... |

Composition of the indices : *a* = Food ; *b* = Fuel and light ; *c* = Clothing ; *d* = Rent ; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Sept. [2] Aug. [3] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. [4] July.

## INDICES OF GENERAL CONSUMER PRICES AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*

| Country | America *(cont.)* | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Costa Rica | Cuba | Dominican Republic | Guatemala | Mexico | Neth. W. Indies | Panama | Paraguay | Peru |
| Town or no. of localities | San José | 30 | Trujillo City | Guatemala | Mexico City | Curaçao | Panama | Asunción | Lima |
| Original base (=100) | 1936 | July-Dec. 1937 | Nov. 1941 | Aug. 1946 | 1939 | June 1949 | Oct. 1939-June 1940 | 1938 | 1934-36 |
| *General* | | | | | | | | | |
| Composition of the index | *a-e* | *a* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-c* | *a-e* | *a* | *a-e* | *a-e* |
| 1937 | 100 | . | . | . | 100 | . | . | . | 100 |
| 1938 | 101 | . | . | . | 114 | . | . | 100 | 101 |
| 1939 | 101 | . | . | . | 116 | . | . | *109* | 100 |
| 1940 | 99 | . | . | . | 117 | . | . | *113* | 107 |
| 1941 | 102 | . | 100 [1] | . | 121 | . | . | *128* | 117 |
| 1942 | 123 | . | *120* | . | 140 | . | . | *144* | 131 |
| 1943 | 158 | . | *150* | . | 183 | . | . | *176* | 143 |
| 1944 | 167 | . | *174* | . | 230 | . | . | *193* | 164 |
| 1945 | 177 | . | *181* | . | 247 | . | . | *214* | 182 |
| 1946 | 184 | . | *202* | 100 [2] | 308 | . | . | *236* | 199 |
| 1947 | 210 | . | *227* | *101* | 348 | . | . | *309* | 258 |
| 1948 | 216 | . | *229* | *108* | 369 | . | . | *412* | 337 |
| 1949 | 233 | . | *220* | *116* | 389 | 100 [3] | . | *557* | 388 |
| 1949 : Nov. | 242 | . | *212* | *114* | 397 | *98* | . | *633* | 417 |
| Dec. | 245 | . | *212* | *118* | 403 | *97* | . | *643* | 419 |
| 1950 : Jan. | 247 | . | *217* | *122* | 402 | *97* | . | *661* | 423 |
| Feb | 250 | . | *215* | *127* | 400 | *97* | . | *689* | 427 |
| Mar. | 249 | . | *214* | *123* | 402 | *96* | . | *740* | 427 |
| April | 248 | . | *215* | *123* | 406 | *96* | . | *759* | 426 |
| May | 250 | . | *218* | *121* | 410 | *96* | . | ... | 432 |
| June | 253 | . | *218* | *124* | 410 | *96* | . | *838* | 431 |
| July | 264 | . | *220* | *120* | 412 | *96* | . | *868* | 432 |
| Aug. | 266 | . | *224* | *125* | 416 | *96* | . | *886* | 427 |
| Sept. | 265 | . | *220* | *128* | 419 | *97* | . | *881* | ... |
| Oct. | ... | . | *218* | ... | 421 | *97* | . | ... | ... |
| Nov. | ... | . | *223* | ... | 424 | *97* | . | ... | ... |
| *Food* | | | | | | | | | |
| 1937 | 100 | 100 [4] | . | . | 100 | . | . | . | 100 |
| 1938 | 99 | 100 | . | . | 115 | . | . | 100 | 98 |
| 1939 | 96 | 94 | . | . | 115 | . | . | *106* | 92 |
| 1940 | 91 | 92 | . | . | 112 | . | 100 | *108* | 101 |
| 1941 | 95 | 100 | 100 [1] | . | 115 | . | . | *125* | 115 |
| 1942 | 119 | 132 | *117* | . | 131 | . | *153* | *137* | 129 |
| 1943 | 149 | 151 | *142* | . | 168 | . | *156* | *157* | 143 |
| 1944 | 160 | 172 | *175* | . | 217 | . | *159* | *172* | 163 |
| 1945 | 181 | 194 | *183* | . | 234 | . | *162* | *188* | 182 |
| 1946 | 187 | 213 | *210* | 100 [2] | 303 | . | *175* | *223* | 196 |
| 1947 | 219 | 249 | *253* | *101* | 348 | . | *194* | *281* | 271 |
| 1948 | 218 | 272 | *241* | *112* | 367 | . | *199* | *373* | 364 |
| 1949 | 221 | 234 | *209* | *123* | 383 | 100 [3] | *185* | *487* | 423 |
| 1949 : Nov. | 229 | 221 | *203* | *120* | 389 | *97* | *183* | *493* | 461 |
| Dec. | 234 | 218 | *200* | *126* | 393 | *96* | *182* | *522* | 463 |
| 1950 : Jan. | 239 | 219 | *213* | *135* | 388 | *95* | *180* | *637* | 472 |
| Feb. | 239 | 218 | *210* | *140* | 385 | *95* | *178* | *648* | 478 |
| Mar. | 234 | 218 | *207* | *134* | 387 | *94* | *176* | *734* | 478 |
| April | 233 | 222 | *213* | *132* | 391 | *95* | *174* | *746* | 476 |
| May | 235 | 223 | *221* | *128* | 395 | *95* | *178* | ... | 484 |
| June | 237 | 226 | *223* | *133* | 396 | *95* | *178* | ... | 482 |
| July | 241 | 232 | *225* | *128* | 398 | *95* | *181* | ... | 484 |
| Aug. | 243 | 236 | *231* | *135* | 401 | *96* | *181* | ... | 473 |
| Sept. | 241 | 231 | *219* | ... | 404 | *97* | *180* | ... | ... |
| Oct. | ... | 226 | *215* | ... | 407 | *97* | *179* | ... | ... |
| Nov. | ... | ... | *226* | ... | 410 | *98* | *180* | ... | ... |

Composition of the indices : *a* = Food ; *b* = Fuel and light ; *c* = Clothing ; *d* = Rent ; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Nov. [2] Aug. [3] June. [4] July-Dec.

## INDICES OF GENERAL CONSUMER PRICES AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*

| Country | America *(concl.)* | | | Asia | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Puerto Rico | Uruguay | Venezuela | Burma | Ceylon | Cyprus | India | |
| Town or no. of localities | 6 | Monte-video | Caracas | Rangoon | Colombo | 5 | Ahmed-abad | Bombay |
| Original base (= 100) | Mar. 1941 | 1929 | 1938 | 1931 | Nov. 1938-April 1939 | Aug. 1939 | Aug. 1926-July 1927 | July 1933-June 1934 |
| | | | | *General* | | | | |
| Composition of the index | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a* [1] | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* |
| 1937 | . | 100 | . | 100 | . | . | 100 | 100 |
| 1938 | . | 99 | . | 99 | . | . | 93 | 100 |
| 1939 | . | 105 | . | 97 | *108* [2] | 100 [3] | 96 | 100 |
| 1940 | . | 110 | . | 107 | *112* | . | 104 | 106 |
| 1941 | 100 [4] | 109 | . | 122 | *122* | . | 114 | 117 |
| 1942 | *135* [5] | 112 | . | . | *162* | *220* | 150 | 148 |
| 1943 | *140* | 118 | . | . | *197* | *254* | 271 | 218 |
| 1944 | *143* | 121 | . | . | *200* | *236* | 278 | 224 |
| 1945 | *146* | 139 | . | . | *221* | *232* | 261 | 222 |
| 1946 | *158* | 153 | . | 381 [6 7] | *229* | *245* | 275 | 244 |
| 1947 | *180* | 177 | . | 388 | *252* | *269* [7] | 289 | 263 |
| 1948 | *178* | 180 | . | 360 | *260* | *337* | 319 | 286 |
| 1949 | *163* | 189 | . | 486 | *258* | *324* | 326 | 290 |
| 1949 : Nov. | *160* | 180 | . | 436 | *262* | *333* | 332 | 292 |
| Dec. | *158* | 181 | . | 425 | *264* | *329* | 328 | 291 |
| 1950 : Jan. | *158* | 179 | . | 432 | *271* | 100 [8] | 314 | 292 |
| Feb. | *158* | 180 | . | 418 | *271* | *103* | 329 | 288 |
| Mar. | *158* | 181 | . | 408 | *266* | *101* | 342 | 285 |
| April | *158* | 183 | . | 397 | *266* | *102* | 351 | 290 |
| May | *158* | 179 | . | 400 | *266* | *103* | 349 | 294 |
| June | *157* | 180 | . | 419 | *271* | *103* | 349 | 294 |
| July | *157* | 181 | . | 449 | *272* | *101* | 349 | 301 |
| Aug. | *160* | 179 | . | 441 | *274* | *102* | 357 | 304 |
| Sept. | ... | 178 | . | 419 | *283* | *104* | 357 | 305 |
| Oct. | ... | 181 | . | 388 | *279* | *106* | 329 | 301 |
| Nov. | ... | ... | . | ... | *277* | *106* | 317 | 294 |
| | | | | *Food* | | | | |
| 1937 | . | 100 | 100 | 100 | . | . | 100 | 100 |
| 1938 | . | 96 | 102 | 97 | . | . | 91 | 99 |
| 1939 | . | 102 | 107 | 95 | *112* [2] | 100 [3] | 96 | 100 |
| 1940 | . | 107 | 102 | 111 | *115* | . | 107 | 110 |
| 1941 | 100 [4] | 107 | 101 | 132 | *129* | . | 116 | 123 |
| 1942 | *148* [5] | 111 | 111 | . | *185* | *224* | 164 | 158 |
| 1943 | *149* | 118 | 122 | . | *213* | *208* | 315 | 221 |
| 1944 | *153* | 122 | 141 | . | *210* | *220* | 316 | 231 |
| 1945 | *157* | 146 | 141 | . | *229* | *222* | 294 | 238 |
| 1946 | *179* | 163 | 150 | 549 [6] | *234* | *245* | 327 | 278 |
| 1947 | *213* | 202 | 172 | 463 | *261* | *264* [7] | 349 | 302 |
| 1948 | *211* | 197 | 208 | 403 | *286* | *320* | 362 | 305 |
| 1949 | *187* | 197 | 203 | 573 | *298* | *301* | 380 | 321 |
| 1949 : Nov. | *184* | 181 | 203 | 508 | *306* | *319* | 394 | 332 |
| Dec. | *182* | 181 | 208 | 493 | *308* | *303* | 380 | 329 |
| 1950 : Jan. | *181* | 179 | 204 | 501 | *321* | 100 [8] | 366 | 332 |
| Feb. | *182* | 180 | 199 | 479 | *319* | *106* | 391 | 324 |
| Mar. | *182* | 183 | 192 | 459 | *313* | *102* | 413 | 317 |
| April | *182* | 185 | 198 | 446 | *310* | *104* | 431 | 325 |
| May | *181* | 176 | 198 | 456 | *313* | *106* | 427 | 333 |
| June | *180* | 179 | 202 | 487 | *319* | *107* | 427 | 333 |
| July | *180* | 180 | 206 | 549 | *321* | *102* | 427 | 344 |
| Aug. | *186* | 177 | 199 | 543 | *323* | *104* | 442 | 349 |
| Sept. | ... | 175 | ... | 506 | *335* | *106* | 440 | 350 |
| Oct. | ... | 178 | ... | 456 | *327* | *109* | 393 | 344 |
| Nov. | ... | ... | ... | ... | *321* | *110* | 370 | 331 |

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Including coal and soap. [2] Aug.-Dec. [3] Aug. [4] Mar. [5] June and Dec. [6] New series, with base 1941 = 100, spliced by I.L.O. to old series. [7] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. [8] New index; 12 Jan. 1950 = 100.

## INDICES OF GENERAL CONSUMER PRICES AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*

| Country | Asia *(cont.)* | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Indonesia | | Iran | Israel | Japan | Lebanon | Pakistan | Philippines |
| Town or no. of localities | Djakarta | Macassar | 7 | 2 | 28 | Beirut | Lahore | Manila |
| Original base (=100) | July 1938 | July 1938 | Mar. 1936-Mar. 1937 | Aug. 1939 | 1948 | June-Aug. 1939 | Aug. 1939 | 1941 |
| | | | | *General* | | | | |
| Composition of the index | *a* | *a* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* |
| 1937 | . | . | 100 | . | . | . | . | 100 |
| 1938 | . | . | 114 | . | . | . | . | 104 |
| 1939 | . | . | 121 | 100 [1] | . | 100 [2] | . | 105 |
| 1940 | . | . | 134 | *118* | . | *110* [3] | . | 110 |
| 1941 | . | . | 184 | *141* | . | . | . | 112 |
| 1942 | . | . | 326 | *194* | . | *287* | . | . |
| 1943 | . | . | 787 | *232* | . | *441* | *298* | . |
| 1944 | . | . | 916 | *237* | . | *560* | *308* | . |
| 1945 | . | . | 779 | *253* | . | *607* | *321* | 776 |
| 1946 | . | . | 698 | *267* | 27 [4] | *553* | *343* | 585 |
| 1947 | . | . | 707 | *271* | *57* | *500* | *398* [4] | 434 |
| 1948 | . | . | 775 | *338* | 100 | *492* | *444* | 410 |
| 1949 | . | . | 845 | *347* | *138* | *461* | *408* | 385 |
| 1949: Nov. | . | . | 810 | *322* | *131* | *428* | *403* | 381 |
| Dec. | . | . | 782 | *321* | *134* | *429* | *396* | 370 |
| 1950: Jan. | . | . | 769 | *320* | *136* | *425* | *408* | 372 |
| Feb. | . | . | 759 | *319* | *130* | *423* | *413* | 378 |
| Mar. | . | . | 733 | *319* | *128* | *417* | *417* | 380 |
| April | . | . | 705 | *319* | *124* | *416* | *430* | 372 |
| May | . | . | 685 | *319* | *126* | *423* | *437* | 359 |
| June | . | . | 685 | *317* | *124* | *410* | *449* | 362 |
| July | . | . | 670 | *317* | *127* | *415* | *410* | 372 |
| Aug. | . | . | 653 | *321* | *130* | *423* | *405* | 375 |
| Sept. | . | . | 655 | *324* | *130* | *428* | *408* | ... |
| Oct. | . | . | 659 | *324* | *128* | ... | *409* | ... |
| Nov. | . | . | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| | | | | *Food* | | | | |
| 1937 | . | . | 100 | . | . | . | . | 100 |
| 1938 | 100 [5] | 100 [5] | 112 | . | . | . | . | 104 |
| 1939 | . | . | 114 | 100 [1] | . | 100 [2] | . | 107 |
| 1940 | . | . | 125 | *122* | . | *114* [3] | . | 112 |
| 1941 | . | . | 187 | *154* | . | . | . | 113 |
| 1942 | . | . | 346 | *238* | . | *435* | . | . |
| 1943 | . | . | 872 | *287* | . | *612* | ... | . |
| 1944 | . | . | 928 | *285* | . | *663* | ... | . |
| 1945 | . | . | 774 | *313* | . | *732* | ... | 945 |
| 1946 | . | . | 696 | *334* | 32 [4] | *662* | ... | 729 |
| 1947 | *2 351* | *1 682* | 703 | *334* | *64* | *604* | *460* [4] | 470 |
| 1948 | *1 310* | *1 208* | 781 | *435* | 100 | *626* | *497* | 437 |
| 1949 | *1 265* | *1 084* | 870 | *420* | *134* | *569* | *452* | 405 |
| 1949: Nov. | *1 417* | *973* | 818 | *377* | *123* | *503* | *438* | 403 |
| Dec. | *1 313* | *992* | 773 | *375* | *125* | *516* | *427* | 380 |
| 1950: Jan. | *1 374* | *1 040* | 757 | *375* | *127* | *505* | *442* | 381 |
| Feb. | *1 355* | *1 060* | 745 | *373* | *123* | *507* | *454* | 385 |
| Mar. | *1 410* | *1 242* | 721 | *372* | *121* | *496* | *482* | 387 |
| April | *1 579* | *1 481* | 687 | *372* | *118* | *493* | *445* | 372 |
| May | *1 506* | *1 618* | 667 | *372* | *122* | *513* | *458* | 349 |
| June | *1 542* | *1 685* | 670 | *369* | *117* | *478* | *444* | 352 |
| July | *1 526* | *1 662* | 649 | *369* | *121* | *484* | *440* | 365 |
| Aug. | *1 411* | *1 578* | 613 | *368* | *124* | *499* | *449* | 369 |
| Sept. | *1 414* | *1 537* | 616 | *372* | *122* | *509* | *450* | ... |
| Oct. | *1 437* [r] | *1 555* | 617 | 373 | ... | ... | *453* | ... |
| Nov. | *1 541* | *1 613* | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Aug. [2] June-Aug. [3] Jan. [4] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. [5] July: index of the free market retail prices of 19 foodstuffs, based on the consumption in 1932 of an Indonesian family with a monthly income of fl.25-50.

## INDICES OF GENERAL CONSUMER PRICES AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*

| Country | Asia *(concl.)* | | Europe | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Thailand | Viet-Nam | Austria [1] | Belgium | Denmark | Finland | France |
| Town or no. of localities | Bangkok | Saigon | Vienna | 62 | 200 | 32 | Paris |
| Original base (=100) | 1938 | 1925 | Mar. 1938 | 1936-1938 | 1935 | 1935 | 1949 |
| | | | *General* | | | | |
| Composition of the index | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-c, e* | *a-c, e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* |
| 1937 | . | 100 | . | 100 | 100 | 100 | . |
| 1938 | 100 | 114 | 100 [2] | 104 | 102 | 103 | . |
| 1939 | *103* | 117 | . | 104 | 104 | 105 | . |
| 1940 | *113* | 136 | . | . | 130 | 125 | . |
| 1941 | *133* | 149 | . | . | 150 | 148 | . |
| 1942 | *177* | 191 | . | . | 156 | 174 | . |
| 1943 | *222* | 251 | . | . | 158 | 197 | . |
| 1944 | *467* | 384 | . | . | 160 | 209 | . |
| 1945 | *905* | . | . | . | 162 | 292 | . |
| 1946 | *1 072* | 1 825 [3] | . | . | 161 | 467 | . |
| 1947 | *1 247* | 2 921 | . | 340 | 166 | 606 | . |
| 1948 | *1 247* | 3 935 | . | 390 | 170 | 815 | . |
| 1949 | *1 198* | 4 808 | *403* | 378 | 171 | 830 | 100 |
| 1949: Nov. | *1 186* | 4 741 | *463* | 374 | . | 855 | . |
| Dec. | *1 188* | 4 764 | *471* | 372 | . | 856 | . |
| 1950: Jan. | *1 175* | 4 808 [4] | *463* | 368 | 174 | 864 | . |
| Feb. | *1 214* | 4 808 | *450* | 370 | . | 870 | . |
| Mar. | *1 285* | 4 664 | *441* | 368 | . | 882 | *108* |
| April | *1 295* | 4 760 | *442* | 367 | 178 | 888 | . |
| May | *1 268* | 4 808 | *442* | 367 | . | 904 | . |
| June | *1 239* | 4 904 | *445* | 365 | . | 971 | *107* |
| July | ... | 4 952 | *450* | 366 | 179 | 969 | . |
| Aug. | ... | 5 000 | *450* | 373 | . | 961 | . |
| Sept. | ... | 5 049 | *458* | 389 | . | 974 | *113* |
| Oct. | ... | 5 145 | *497* | 392 | 185 | 998 | . |
| Nov. | ... | ... | *502* | 385 | . | 1 023 | . |
| | | | *Food* | | | | |
| 1937 | . | 100 | . | 100 | 100 | 100 | . |
| 1938 | . | 125 | 100 [2] | 105 | 104 | 101 | . |
| 1939 | . | 125 | . | 105 | 106 | 105 | . |
| 1940 | . | 147 | . | . | 129 | 128 | . |
| 1941 | . | 149 | . | . | 157 | 151 | . |
| 1942 | . | 170 | . | . | 162 | 177 | . |
| 1943 | . | 210 | . | . | 161 | 197 | . |
| 1944 | . | 311 | . | . | 162 | 200 | . |
| 1945 | . | . | . | . | 163 | 312 | . |
| 1946 | . | 1 933 [3] [5] | . | . | 163 | 491 | . |
| 1947 | . | 3 269 | . | 303 | 170 | 719 | . |
| 1948 | . | 4 424 | . | 382 | 173 | 950 | . |
| 1949 | . | 5 291 | *445* | 362 | 175 | 979 | 100 |
| 1949: Nov. | . | 5 024 | *529* | 357 | . | 1 023 | . |
| Dec. | . | 5 050 | *531* | 355 | . | 1 025 | . |
| 1950: Jan. | . | 5 132 [4] | *511* | 353 | 186 | 1 036 | *108* |
| Feb. | . | 5 132 | *481* | 351 | . | 1 040 | *110* |
| Mar. | . | 4 973 | *475* | 346 | . | 1 053 | *108* |
| April | . | 4 920 | *443* | 344 | 193 | 1 063 | *110* |
| May | . | 4 973 | *439* | 343 | . | 1 090 | *108* |
| June | . | 4 920 | *441* | 339 | . | 1 180 | *105* |
| July | . | 4 973 | *460* | 340 | 206 | 1 185 | *105* |
| Aug. | . | 5 026 | *458* | 352 | . | 1 163 | *109* |
| Sept. | . | 5 185 | *468* | 370 | . | 1 162 | *113* |
| Oct. | . | 5 238 | *515* | 372 | 215 | 1 180 | *116* |
| Nov. | . | ... | *521* | 364 | . | 1 171 | *117* |

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Index based on schilling prices in Mar. 1938. [2] Mar. [3] New series with base Jan.-June 1939 = 100, spliced by I.L.O. to old series. [4] New series, with base 1949 = 100, spliced by I.L.O. to old series. [5] Mar.-Dec.

## INDICES OF GENERAL CONSUMER PRICES AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*

| Country | Europe *(cont.)* | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Germany | Greece | Iceland | Ireland | Italy | Luxembourg |
| Town or no. of localities | Bizonal area | Athens | Reykjavik | 120 | 62 [1] | 9 |
| Original base (=100) | 1938 | 1938 | Jan.-Mar. 1939 | July 1914 | 1938 | 1914 |
| | | | *General* | | | |
| Composition of the index | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-c, e* |
| 1937 | . | 100 | . | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 1938 | 100 | 101 | . | 102 | 108 | 103 |
| 1939 | . | 100 | 100 [2] | 105 | 112 | 102 |
| 1940 | . | 111 | *128* | 121 | 131 | 111 [3] |
| 1941 | . | . | *160* | 133 | 152 | . |
| 1942 | . | . | *206* | 147 | 175 | . |
| 1943 | . | . | *256* | 166 | 294 | . |
| 1944 | . | . | *268* | 174 | 1 308 | 173 [3] |
| 1945 | . | 1 909 | *277* | 173 | 2 575 | 215 |
| 1946 | . | 14 625 | *293* | 171 | 3 039 | 272 |
| 1947 | . | 17 586 | *315* | 181 [4] | 4 925 | 284 |
| 1948 | *162* | 24 909 | *322* | 186 | 5 214 | 302 [5] |
| 1949 | *160* | 28 575 | *330* | 188 | 5 291 | 319 |
| 1949 : Nov. | *156* | 28 423 | *338* | 188 | 5 156 | 327 |
| Dec. | *156* | 28 534 | *340* | . | 5 116 | 330 |
| 1950 : Jan. | *154* | 29 914 | *342* | . | 5 097 | 330 |
| Feb. | *154* | 30 548 | *347* | 188 | 5 110 | 328 |
| Mar. | *153* | 30 324 | *459* | . | 5 040 | 328 |
| April | *153* | 29 408 | *468* | . | 5 115 | 325 |
| May | *156* | 29 473 | *482* | 191 | 5 124 | 325 |
| June | *151* | 29 709 | *500* | . | 5 192 | 327 |
| July | *149* | 30 789 | *528* | . | 5 193 | 326 |
| Aug. | *148* | 31 032 | *532* | 188 | 5 284 | 331 |
| Sept. | *148* | 31 455 | *532* | . | 5 390 | 333 |
| Oct. | *149* | 32 270 | *560* | . | 5 324 | 340 |
| Nov. | *150* | ... | *578* | 188 | 5 379 | 342 |
| | | | *Food* | | | |
| 1937 | . | 100 | . | 100 | . | 100 |
| 1938 | 100 | 97 | . | 102 | 100 | 104 |
| 1939 | . | 95 | 100 [2] | 104 | . | 103 |
| 1940 | . | 107 | *137* | 117 | . | 111 [3] |
| 1941 | . | . | *189* | 129 | . | . |
| 1942 | . | . | *264* | 143 | . | . |
| 1943 | . | . | *330* | 159 | . | . |
| 1944 | . | . | *334* | 168 | . | 173 [3] |
| 1945 | . | 1 764 | *342* | 169 | . | 209 |
| 1946 | . | 15 776 | *361* | 169 | *3 586* | 254 |
| 1947 | . | 19 511 | *373* | 183 [4] | *5 834* | 271 |
| 1948 | *156* [3] | 29 369 | *360* | 188 | *6 083* | 289 [5] |
| 1949 | *165* | 34 011 | *365* | 188 | *6 069* | 321 |
| 1949 : Nov. | *162* | 33 518 | *378* | 188 | *5 850* | 340 |
| Dec. | *163* | 33 021 | *382* | . | *5 789* | 346 |
| 1950 : Jan. | *160* | 35 335 | *389* | . | *5 760* | 345 |
| Feb. | *160* | 36 370 | *390* | 188 | *5 778* | 342 |
| Mar. | *159* | 36 099 | *469* | . | *5 658* | 342 |
| April | *160* | 34 570 | *483* | . | *5 770* | 336 |
| May | *168* | 34 747 | *488* | 192 | *5 789* | 336 |
| June | *157* | 35 239 | *521* | . | *5 888* | 339 |
| July | *153* | 37 000 | *544* | . | *5 844* | 336 |
| Aug. | *150* | 36 999 | *558* | 185 | *5 962* | 342 |
| Sept. | *149* | 36 199 | *563* | . | *6 090* | 345 |
| Oct. | *150* | 36 248 | *614* | . | *5 959* | ... |
| Nov. | *152* | ... | *624* | 188 | *6 016* | ... |

Composition of the indices : *a* = Food ; *b* = Fuel and light ; *c* = Clothing ; *d* = Rent ; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Towns of over 50,000 inhabitants. [2] Jan.-Mar. [3] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. [4] From Aug. 1947 : interim index ; composition *a-d*, spliced by I.L.O. to old series. [5] New series, with base Jan. 1948 = 100, spliced by I.L.O. to old series.

## INDICES OF GENERAL CONSUMER PRICES AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*

| Country | Europe *(cont.)* | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Netherlands | Norway | Poland | Portugal | Saar | Spain | Sweden | |
| Town or no. of localities | 6 | 31 | Warsaw | Lisbon | Saarbrücken | 50 | 95 | |
| Original base (=100) | 1938-1939 | 1938 | 1947 | July 1938-June 1939 | Jan. 1948 | July 1936 | 1935 | |
| *General* | | | | | | | | |
| Composition of the index | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a, b* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | |
| 1937 | 100 | 100 | . | . | . | . | 100 [1] | 100 [2] |
| 1938 | 101 | 103 | . | 100 | . | . | 102 | 102 |
| 1939 | 102 | 105 | . | *101* [3] | . | *154* [3 4] | 105 | 104 |
| 1940 | 117 | 122 | . | *111* | . | *178* | 118 | 118 |
| 1941 | 134 | 143 | . | *122* | . | *232* | 134 | 137 |
| 1942 | 143 | 152 | . | *138* | . | *247* | 144 | 149 |
| 1943 | 149 | 155 | . | *154* | . | *246* | 146 | 153 |
| 1944 | 153 [3] | 157 | . | *172* | . | *257* | 145 | 153 |
| 1945 | 176 [5] | 160 | *66* | *188* | . | *275* | 145 | 152 |
| 1946 | 192 [3] | 164 | *77* | *208* | . | *361* | 145 | 155 |
| 1947 | 199 | 165 | 100 | *211* | . | *424* | 150 | 156 |
| 1948 | 206 | 164 | *104* | *205* | 100 [6] | *453* | 157 | 166 |
| 1949 | 219 | 164 | *108* | *213* | *115* | *478* | 160 | 170 |
| 1949 : Nov. | 221 | 164 | *108* | *218* | *119* | *495* | . | 171 |
| Dec. | 226 | 164 | *111* | *216* | *118* | *500* | 160 | 169 |
| 1950 : Jan. | 230 | 165 [7] | *116* | *222* | *117* | *509* | . | 170 |
| Feb. | 234 | 165 | *117* | *217* | *118* | *517* | . | 170 |
| Mar. | 237 | 166 | *116* [7] | *215* | *116* | *522* | 161 | 170 |
| April | 237 | 170 | *119* | *225* | *117* | *523* | . | 170 |
| May | 237 | 171 | ... | *214* | *117* | *522* | . | 170 |
| June | 241 | 171 | ... | *208* | *117* | *521* | 161 | 171 |
| July | 240 | 172 | ... | *208* | *114* | *521* | . | 171 |
| Aug. | 239 | 172 | ... | *211* | *115* | *526* | . | 171 |
| Sept. | 243 | 178 | ... | *210* | *123* | *534* | 162 | 172 |
| Oct. | 248 | 179 | ... | *209* | *123* | *543* | . | 172 |
| Nov. | 249 | 181 | ... | *209* | ... | ... | . | 173 |
| *Food* | | | | | | | | |
| 1937 | 100 | 100 | . | . | . | . | 100 [1] | 100 [2] |
| 1938 | 102 | 104 | . | 100 | . | . | 104 | 103 |
| 1939 | 103 | 106 | . | *101* [3] | . | *178* [3 4] | 106 | 107 |
| 1940 | 121 | 127 | . | *111* | . | *215* | 121 | 120 |
| 1941 | 145 | 152 | . | *124* | . | *300* | 138 | 142 |
| 1942 | 159 | 158 | . | *141* | . | *318* | 149 | 155 |
| 1943 | 161 | 160 | . | *154* | . | *310* | 149 | 153 |
| 1944 | 166 [3] | 161 | . | *173* | . | *323* | 147 | 148 |
| 1945 | 170 [5] | 163 | *74* | *192* | . | *347* | 146 | 146 |
| 1946 | 195 [3] | 163 | *82* | *217* | . | *491* | 147 | 149 |
| 1947 | 213 | 162 | 100 | *220* | . | *581* | 155 | 154 |
| 1948 | 230 | 158 | *102* | *211* | 100 [6] | *599* | 167 | 166 |
| 1949 | 252 | 156 | *108* | *218* | *106* | *623* | 169 | 168 |
| 1949 : Nov. | 254 | 155 | *106* | *224* | *113* | *650* | . | 169 |
| Dec. | 260 | 155 | *111* | *221* | *112* | *655* | 169 | 168 |
| 1950 : Jan. | 265 | 155 [7] | *119* | *227* | *110* | *668* | . | 169 |
| Feb. | 273 | 155 | *120* | *222* | *111* | *680* | . | 170 |
| Mar. | 277 | 156 | *117* | *220* | *107* | *687* | 169 | 169 |
| April | 276 | 167 | *120* | *232* | *109* | *686* | . | 170 |
| May | 279 | 169 | ... | *217* | *108* | *683* | . | 170 |
| June | 287 | 170 | ... | *213* | *108* | *679* | 170 | 170 |
| July | 281 | 171 | ... | *213* | *103* | *679* | . | 171 |
| Aug. | 278 | 169 | ... | *216* | *106* | *686* | . | 171 |
| Sept. | 279 | 179 | ... | *216* | *110* | *698* | 172 | 172 |
| Oct. | 289 [7] | 178 | ... | *214* | *110* | *713* | . | 171 |
| Nov. | 289 | 182 | ... | *214* | ... | ... | . | 173 |

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Weights based on family budget enquiries. [2] Weights based on estimates of aggregate consumption. [3] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. [4] July 1936 = 100. [5] Sept. and Dec. [6] Jan. [7] New series, with base 1949 = 100, spliced by I.L.O. to old series.

## INDICES OF GENERAL CONSUMER PRICES AND FOOD PRICES *(concl.)*

| Country | Europe *(concl.)* | | | Oceania | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Switzerland | Turkey | United Kingdom | Australia | Fiji | Hawaii | New Zealand |
| Town or no. of localities | 34 | Istanbul | 504-24 | 30 | Suva | Honolulu | 25-4 |
| Original base (=100) | June 1914 | 1938 | July 1914 | 1923-1927 | Aug. 1939 | Mar. 1943 | 1926-1930 |
| | | | | *General* | | | |
| Composition of the index | *a-d* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* | *a-e* |
| 1937 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | . | . | 100 |
| 1938 | 100 | 100 | 101 | 103 | . | . | 103 |
| 1939 | 101 | 101 | 103 | 105 | 100 [1] | . | 107 |
| 1940 | 110 [2] | 112 | 119 | 110 | . | . | 112 |
| 1941 | 127 | 138 | 129 | 115 | . | . | 116 |
| 1942 | 142 | 232 | 130 | 125 | . | . | 120 |
| 1943 | 149 | 346 | 129 | 129 | . | 100 [3] | 123 |
| 1944 | 152 | 338 | 130 | 129 | *172* | *102* | 125 |
| 1945 | 153 | 353 | 132 | 129 | *167* | *104* | 127 |
| 1946 | 152 | 341 | 132 | 131 | *169* | *113* | 128 |
| 1947 | 159 | 343 | 100 [4] | 136 | *191* | *128* | 132 |
| 1948 | 164 | 345 | *108* | 148 | *208* | *135* | 142 |
| 1949 | 163 | 378 | *111* | 162 | *210* | *131* | 145 [5] |
| 1949 : Nov. | 162 | 376 | *112* | 169 [6] | . | . | 146 [6] |
| Dec. | 162 | 379 | *113* | . | . | *127* | . |
| 1950 : Jan. | 160 | 383 | *113* | . | *212* | . | . |
| Feb. | 159 | 388 | *113* | 171 [6] | . | . | 146 [6] |
| Mar. | 159 [7] | 382 | *113* | . | . | *126* | . |
| April | 159 | 374 | *114* | . | *212* | . | . |
| May | 159 | 361 | *114* | 176 [6] | . | . | 151 [6] |
| June | 159 | 357 | *114* | . | . | *126* | . |
| July | 159 | 350 | *114* | . | *211* | . | . |
| Aug. | 160 | 343 | *113* | 180 [6] | . | . | 156 [6] |
| Sept. | 161 | 341 | *114* | . | . | *129* | . |
| Oct. | 162 | 346 | *115* | . | *219* | . | . |
| Nov. | 162 | 348 | *116* | ... | . | . | ... |
| | | | | *Food* | | | |
| 1937 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 [8] | . | . | 100 |
| 1938 | 100 | 98 | 101 | 104 | . | . | 104 |
| 1939 | 102 | 98 | 101 | 109 | 100 [1] | . | 110 |
| 1940 | 113 [2] | 111 | 118 | 110 | . | . | 113 |
| 1941 | 135 | 141 | 121 | 111 | . | . | 116 |
| 1942 | 155 | 275 | 116 | 121 | . | . | 118 |
| 1943 | 163 | 449 | 119 | 122 | . | 100 [3] | 119 |
| 1944 | 166 | 399 | 121 | 120 | *157* | *100* | 121 |
| 1945 | 166 | 407 | 122 | 121 | *154* | *101* | 120 |
| 1946 | 162 | 405 | 122 | 122 | *157* | *117* | 121 |
| 1947 | 171 | 400 | 100 [4] | 129 | *185* | *141* [9] | 128 |
| 1948 | 177 | 410 | *108* | 148 | *200* | *149* | 145 |
| 1949 | 176 | 460 | *114* | 164 | ... | *144* | 149 [5] |
| 1949 : Nov. | 176 | 457 | *119* | 167 | . | *139* | 152 |
| Dec. | 175 | 464 | *120* | 171 | . | *134* | 152 |
| 1950 : Jan. | 173 | 471 | *120* | 171 | ... | *135* | 150 |
| Feb. | 172 | 484 | *121* | 173 | . | *134* | 150 |
| Mar. | 174 [7] | 471 | *121* | 175 | . | *133* | 150 |
| April | 174 | 460 | *122* | 178 | ... | *131* | 152 |
| May | 176 | 435 | *125* | 179 | . | *130* | 160 |
| June | 177 | 430 | *123* | 179 | . | *134* | 166 |
| July | 177 | 420 | *122* | ... | ... | *135* | 168 |
| Aug. | 180 | 408 | *121* | ... | . | *138* | 169 |
| Sept. | 181 | 406 | *122* | ... | . | *139* | 170 |
| Oct. | 182 | 414 | *125* | ... | ... | *138* | 174 |
| Nov. | 182 | 419 | *125* | ... | . | *137* | 172 |

Composition of the indices : *a* = Food : *b* = Fuel and light *c* = Clothing ; *d* = Rent ; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Aug. [2] New series, with base Aug. 1939 = 100, spliced by I.L.O. to old series. [3] Mar. [4] Interim index : 200 cities ; 17 June 1947 = 100. [5] New index, spliced by I.L.O. to old series ; 21 towns ; base : Jan.-Mar. 1949 = 100. [6] Quarterly average. [7] Revised series ; composition, *a-e*. [8] Including heating. [9] Average of 8 months.

# Wages

## STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES

*Rates or earnings per hour, day, week or month*

| Date | Africa | America | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Egypt | Canada | | Colombia [1] | | | Mexico | |
| | Mi., man., constr., transp., serv. | Mi., man., constr., transp., serv. | Mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv. | Mi., man., constr., transp., serv. | | | Mi., man., constr., transp. | |
| | Week | Hour | Week | Day | | | Hour | Week |
| | M. W. | M. W. | | M. | W. | M. W. | M. W. | |
| | Earnings [2] | Rates [3] | Earnings [4] | Earnings | | | Earnings [3] | |
| | Piastres | Index | $ | Pesos | Pesos | Pesos | Pesos | Pesos |
| 1937 | . | 100 | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| 1938 | . | 103 | . | 1.65 [5] | 0.84 [5] | 1.41 [5] | . | . |
| 1939 | . | 103 | . | 1.79 | 0.87 | 1.48 | 0.60 | 26.92 |
| 1940 | . | 107 | . | 1.79 | 0.95 | 1.52 | 0.63 | 27.41 |
| 1941 | . | 117 | 26.16 [6] | 1.77 | 0.97 | 1.51 | 0.67 | 32.07 |
| 1942 | 95.0 [7] | 127 | 28.56 | 1.84 | 0.98 | 1.57 | 0.68 | 32.78 |
| 1943 | 86.0 | 138 | 30.78 | 1.95 | 1.04 | 1.67 | 0.84 | 38.53 |
| 1944 | 106.5 | 143 | 31.84 | 2.32 | 1.32 | 2.06 | 0.92 | 42.63 |
| 1945 | 117.5 | 147 | 31.99 | 2.57 | 1.47 | 2.30 | 1.02 | 46.94 |
| 1946 | 124.0 | 160 | 32.38 | 2.86 | 1.56 | 2.56 | 1.17 | 53.44 |
| 1947 | 133.0 | 180 | 36.15 | 3.41 | 1.91 | 3.08 | 1.28 | 58.90* |
| 1948 | 146.5 | 202 | 40.11 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| 1949 | 145.0 | ... | 43.05 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| 1949 : Sept. | . | . | 43.55 | ... | ... | ... | . | . |
| Dec. | ... | . | 42.38 | ... | ... | ... | . | . |
| 1950 : Mar. | . | . | 44.88 | ... | ... | ... | . | . |
| June | ... | . | 45.13 | ... | ... | ... | . | . |
| Sept. | . | . | 45.99 | ... | ... | ... | . | . |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 115 (1948) | 787 (1948) | 2 028 (1948) | . | . | 13 (1947) | 682 (1939) | . |

| Date | America *(concl.)* | | | Asia | | Europe | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Peru | | | Ceylon | Japan | Belgium | Czechoslovakia | | |
| | Agr., mi., man., constr., transp., com., serv. | | | . | Mi., man., com., transp., etc. | Man., constr., transp.* | Mi., man., constr. | | |
| | Day | | | Hour | Month | Hour | Hour | | |
| | M. | W. | M. W. | M. W. | M. W. | M. W. | M. | W. | M. W. |
| | Earnings | | | Rates | Earnings | Earnings | Rates | | |
| | Soles | Soles | Soles | Index | Yen | Index | Kč. | Kč. | Kč. |
| 1937 | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| 1938 | . | . | . | . | . | *108* [8] | . | . | . |
| 1939 | . | . | . | 100 | . | *109* | 3.86 [9] | 2.22 [9] | 3.45 [9] |
| 1940 | . | . | . | *100* | . | *115* [10] | 5.12 | 2.99 | 4.58 |
| 1941 | . | . | . | *110* | . | . | 5.86 | 3.46 | 5.25 |
| 1942 | . | . | . | *165* | . | . | 6.25 | 3.82 | 5.64 |
| 1943 | . | . | . | *201* | . | . | 6.26 | 3.95 | 5.68 |
| 1944 | . | . | 3.68 | *212* | . | . | 6.26 | 3.97 | 5.69 |
| 1945 | . | . | 4.64 | *244* | . | . | 6.88 | 4.51 | 6.28 |
| 1946 | 5.03 | 4.71 | 5.01 | *279* | . | . | 11.09 | 8.70 | 10.49 |
| 1947 | 6.18 | 5.14 | 6.12 | *293* | . | *351* | 11.39 | 9.09 | 10.81 |
| 1948 | ... | ... | 8.62 | *313* | 6 208 [11] | *384* | ... | ... | 10.93 |
| 1949 | ... | ... | ... | *320* | 8 394 [12] | *404* | ... | ... | ... |
| 1949 : Sept. | . | . | . | *320* | . | *404* | ... | ... | ... |
| Dec. | . | . | . | *305* | . | *406* | ... | ... | ... |
| 1950 : Mar. | . | . | . | *349* | 8 586 | *407* | ... | ... | ... |
| June | . | . | . | *371* | 9 268 | *415* | ... | ... | ... |
| Sept. | . | . | . | ... | 9 543 | *421* | ... | ... | ... |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 95 (1947) | 7 (1947) | 102 (1947) | . | . | . | . | . | . |

[1] Bogotá. [2] Annual figures : averages of Jan. and July. [3] Oct. of each year. [4] Including salaried employees. [5] May-Dec. [6] Mar.-Dec. [7] July. [8] 1936-1938 = 100. [9] Mar. [10] Average of Mar., Sept. and Dec. [11] Oct. 1948 [12] Nov. 1949.

## STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES *(cont.)*
### *Rates or earnings per hour, day, week or month*

| Date | Europe *(cont.)* | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Denmark | | | | France | | |
| | Man., constr., com., transp., etc. | | | | Man., constr.[6], com., transp.[6] [8] | | |
| | Hour | | | | Hour | | |
| | M. sk. | M. unsk. | W. | M. W. | M. | W. | M. W. |
| | Earnings [1] | | | | Rates | | |
| | Öre | Öre | Öre | Öre | Fr. | Fr. | Fr. |
| 1937 | 158 | 133 | 88 | 135 | . | . | . |
| 1938 | 166 | 140 | 94 | 142 | . | . | . |
| 1939 | 172 | 146 | 96 | 147 | . | . | . |
| 1940 | 191 | 161 | 108 | 163 | . | . | . |
| 1941 | 203 | 175 | 119 | 176 | . | . | . |
| 1942 | 213 | 182 | 123 | 184 | . | . | . |
| 1943 | 227 | 199 | 130 | 198 | . | . | . |
| 1944 | 238 | 212 | 140 | 210 | . | . | . |
| 1945 | 256 | 224 | 155 | 225 | . | . | . |
| 1946 | 286 | 247 | 174 | 249 | 32.5 | 25.9 | 30.6 |
| 1947 | 304 | 259 | 186 | 263 | 45.1 | 38.3 | 43.2 |
| 1948 | 330 | 278 | 202 | 285 | 68.2 | 59.1 | 65.5 |
| 1949 | 345 | 291 | 212 | 297 | 76.2 | 66.3 | 73.5 |
| 1949 : Sept. | 345 | 291 | 213 | 298 | 76.5 | 66.7 | 73.8 |
| Dec. | 351 | 295 | 213 | 301 | 77.8 | 67.3 | 74.9 |
| 1950 : Mar. | 358 | 297 | 211 | 299 | 81.5 | 70.3 | 78.4 |
| June | ... | ... | ... | 311 | 82.9 | 70.8 | 79.5 |
| Sept. | ... | ... | ... | ... | 87.1 | 77.3 | 84.4 |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 74 | 104 | 53 | 231 | . | . | 6 800 (Jan. 1947) |
| | (30 June 1949) | | | | | | |

| Date | Europe *(cont.)* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Ireland | | | | | | | | | Luxembourg | Netherlands [2] | Sweden | | | |
| | Mi., man., constr., transp., serv. | | | | | | | | | Mi., man., constr., etc. | Mi., man., constr., transp., serv. | Mi., man., constr., com., transp. | | | |
| | Hour | | | Week | | | | | | Hour | Day | Hour | | | |
| | M. | W. | M. W.[3] | M. | W. | M. W.[3] | | | | M. W. | M. W. | M. | W. | M. W.[4] | |
| | Earnings [5] | | | | | | | | | Earnings | Earnings | Earnings | | | |
| | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | | | | Fr. | Fl. | Kr. | Kr. | Kr. | |
| 1937 | 1 2.0 | 0 7.9 | 0 11.9 | 51 9 | 28 11 | 43 7 | | | | . | 3.52 | 1.29 | 0.77 | 1.15 | |
| 1938 | 1 2.8 | 0 8.2 | 1 0.7 | 54 11 | 29 10 | 46 4 | | | | . | 3.54 | 1.37 | 0.80 | 1.22 | |
| 1939 | . | . | . | . | . | . | | | | . | 3.56 | 1.42 | 0.84 | 1.28 | |
| 1940 | . | . | . | . | . | . | | | | . | 3.71 | 1.53 | 0.93 | 1.38 | |
| 1941 | . | . | . | . | . | . | | | | . | 3.99 | 1.64 | 1.01 | 1.48 | |
| 1942 | . | . | . | . | . | . | | | | . | 4.26 | 1.79 | 1.09 | 1.61 | |
| 1943 | 1 5.3 | 0 10.2 | 1 3.0 | 64 6 | 35 1 | 54 3 | | | | . | 4.60 | 1.86 | 1.14 | 1.68 | |
| 1944 | 1 6.4 | 0 11.0 | 1 3.9 | 67 10 | 38 0 | 57 6 | | | | . | . | 1.90 | 1.19 | 1.72 | |
| 1945 | 1 6.7 | 0 11.2 | 1 4.0 | 70 8 | 40 1 | 59 5 | | | | 15.56 | . | 1.98 | 1.27 | 1.81 | |
| 1946 | 1 8.2 | 1 0.2 | 1 5.3 | 76 6 | 44 3 | 64 5 | | | | 21.03 | 5.81 | 2.15 | 1.38 | 1.98 | |
| 1947 | 2 0.1 | 1 2.2 | 1 8.6 | 91 1 | 51 5 | 76 5 | | | | 22.78 | 6.52 | 2.45 | 1.62 | 2.27 | |
| 1948 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | | | | 25.40 | 6.78 | 2.67 | 1.79 | 2.47 [7] | |
| 1949 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | | | | 26.74 | ... | 2.75 | 1.87 | 2.56 | |
| 1949 : Sept. | . | . | . | . | . | . | | | | . | . | . | . | . | |
| Dec. | . | . | . | . | . | . | | | | . | . | . | . | . | |
| 1950 : Mar. | . | . | . | . | . | . | | | | . | . | . | . | . | |
| June | . | . | . | . | . | . | | | | . | . | . | . | . | |
| Sept. | . | . | . | . | . | . | | | | . | . | . | . | . | |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | . | . | . | . | . | . | | | | . | 1 878 (1948) | 477 | 89 | 566 | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | (1947) | | | |

[1] Excluding overtime. Monthly figures : averages for quarter ending in month indicated. [2] Insurance statistics (accidents). [3] Including juveniles. [4] Including foremen and juveniles. [5] One week in Oct. of each year.

## STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES *(cont.)*

### *Rates or earnings per hour, day, week or month*

| Date | Europe *(cont.)* | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Sweden *(concl.)* | | | Switzerland [1] | | | | | | | |
| | Mi.[a], man., com., transp. | | | For., mi., man., constr., com., transp. | | | | | | | |
| | Week | | | Hour | | | | Week | | | |
| | M. | W. | M. W. | M. skil., semi-skil. | M. unskil. | W. | M. W. | M. skil., semi-skil. | M. unskil. | W. | M. W. |
| | Earnings | | | Earnings [2] | | | | | | | |
| | Kr. | Kr. | Kr. | Fr. | Fr. | Fr. | Index | Fr. | Fr. | Fr. | Index |
| 1937 | 61.48 | 35.40 | 54.75 | 1.36 | 1.07 | 0.70 | 100 | 67.04 | 53.62 | 33.73 | 100 |
| 1938 | 64.75 | 36.69 | 57.40 | 1.40 | 1.08 | 0.73 | 103 | 68.62 | 54.21 | 34.42 | 102 |
| 1939 | 67.19 | 38.85 | 59.82 | 1.40 | 1.08 | 0.73 | 103 | 69.29 | 54.33 | 34.80 | 103 |
| 1940 | 72.10 | 42.40 | 64.49 | 1.44 | 1.12 | 0.75 | 106 | 71.95 | 56.98 | 36.13 | 107 |
| 1941 | 77.13 | 45.45 | 68.56 | 1.54 | 1.22 | 0.82 | 114 | 76.88 | 62.93 | 38.74 | 116 |
| 1942 | 83.24 | 49.48 | 74.50 | 1.68 | 1.37 | 0.92 | 127 | 84.20 | 70.92 | 43.28 | 128 |
| 1943 | 87.56 | 52.32 | 78.58 | 1.81 | 1.50 | 1.00 | 138 | 90.65 | 77.15 | 47.38 | 139 |
| 1944 | 90.10 | 55.30 | 81.40 | 1.92 | 1.61 | 1.08 | 147 | 95.17 | 81.81 | 51.19 | 148 |
| 1945 | 93.88 | 58.20 | 85.62 | 2.03 | 1.70 | 1.16 | 156 | 100.83 | 86.51 | 55.04 | 157 |
| 1946 | 100.92 | 63.30 | 92.56 | 2.23 | 1.88 | 1.34 | 174 | 110.75 | 95.22 | 64.08 | 175 |
| 1947 | ... | ... | ... | 2.42 | 2.04 | 1.49 | 190 | 119.79 | 103.01 | 70.79 | 190 |
| 1948 | ... | .. | ... | 2.56 | 2.15 | 1.58 | 201 | 126.56 | 108.24 | 75.02 | 201 |
| 1949 | ... | ... | ... | 2.60 | 2.19 | 1.62 | 205 | 127.67 | 109.44 | 76.94 | 203 |
| 1949 : Sept. | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| Dec. | . | . | . | 2.62 | 2.20 | 1.63 | 206 | 128.68 | 110.63 | 77.29 | 205 |
| 1950 : Mar. | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| June | . | . | . | 2.63 | 2.20 | 1.64 | 207 | ... | ... | ... | 203 |
| Sept. | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 469 | 91 | 592 | 42 | 34 | 12 | 88 | 42 | 34 | 12 | 88 |
| | (1946) | | | (1949) | | | | | | | |

| Date | Europe *(concl.)* | | | | | | | | | Oceania | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | United Kingdom [3] | | | | | | | | | Australia | | |
| | Agr., mi., man., constr., com., transp., etc. | Mi. (ex. coal), man., constr., transp. (ex. railways), serv.[a] | | | | | | | | Mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv. | | |
| | Hour | Hour [4] | | | Week [5] | | | | | Hour | | |
| | M. W. | M. | W. | M. W. [6] | M. | W. | M. W. [6] | | | M. | W. | |
| | Rates [7] | Earnings | | | | | | | | Rates | | |
| | Index | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | | | s. d. | s. d. | |
| 1937 | 100 | . | . | . | . | . | . | | | 2 0 | 1 1 | |
| 1938 | 102 | 1 5.4 | 9.0 | 1 1.7 | 69 0 | 32 6 | 53 3 | | | 2 1½ | 1 1¾ | |
| 1939 | 106 | . | . | . | . | . | . | | | 2 2¼ | 1 2 | |
| 1940 | 118 | . | . | . | 89 0 | 38 11 | 69 2 | | | 2 3 | 1 2½ | |
| 1941 | 129 | . | . | . | 99 5 | 43 11 | 75 10 | | | 2 4¾ | 1 3½ | |
| 1942 | 137 | . | . | . | 111 5 | 54 2 | 85 2 | | | 2 7 | 1 4¾ | |
| 1943 | 143 | 2 3.5 | 1 4.3 | 1 10.5 | 121 3 | 62 2 | 93 7 | | | 2 8¾ | 1 6¼ | |
| 1944 | 149 | 2 5.1 | 1 5.3 | 1 11.9 | 124 4 | 64 3 | 96 8 | | | 2 8¾ | 1 7½ | |
| 1945 | 156 | 2 5.3 | 1 5.5 | 2 0.3 | 121 4 | 63 2 | 96 1 | | | 2 9 | 1 7¾ | |
| 1946 | 172 | 2 6.4 | 1 6.4 | 2 2.2 | 120 9 | 65 3 | 101 0 | | | 2 9¾ | 1 8¾ | |
| 1947 | *105* [8] | 2 9.0 | 1 8.1 | 2 4.7 | 128 1 | 69 7 | 108 2 | | | 3 1 | 1 11 | |
| 1948 | *109* | 2 11.4 [9] | 1 9.5 [9] | 2 7.1 [9] | 137 11 [9] | 74 6 [9] | 117 4 [9] | | | 3 8½ | 2 4½ | |
| 1949 | *111* | 3 0.6 | 1 10.7 | 2 8.2 | 142 8 | 78 9 | 121 9 | | | 4 0¾ | 2 7½ | |
| 1949 : Sept. | *111* | 3 0.6 | 1 10.7 | 2 8.2 | 142 8 | 78 9 | 121 9 | | | 4 1¾ | 2 7¾ | |
| Dec. | *111* | . | . | . | . | . | . | | | 4 2¼ | 2 8¼ | |
| 1950 : Mar. | ... | 3 1.2 | 1 11.1 | 2 8.7 | 145 9 | 80 6 | 124 1 | | | 4 3¼ | 2 9¼ | |
| June | ... | . | . | . | . | . | . | | | 4 4¼ | 2 11 | |
| Sept. | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | | | 4 5¼ | 2 11¼ | |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | . | . | . | 6 000 (Oct. 1947) | . | . | 6 000 (Oct. 1947) | | | . | . | |

[1] Earnings of persons injured or killed in industrial accidents. [2] Monthly figures : averages for half-year ending in month indicated. [3] Manual workers. [4] Oct. of each year, except 1943 to 1945 : July. [5] Oct. of each year, except 1940 to 1945 : July. [6] Including juveniles. [7] Annual figures : 31 Dec. of each year. [8] Scope of series enlarged (30 June 1947=100). [9] Owing to changes in industrial classification, Oct. 1948 figures are not strictly comparable with those for earlier dates.

## STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES *(concl.)*

*Rates or earnings per hour, day, week or month*

| Date | Oceania *(concl.)* | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Australia *(concl.)* | | | | Hawaii | New Zealand | | | |
| | Mi., man., constr., com., transp.[a], serv. | | Mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv. | | Mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv. | Mi.[a], man., constr.[a], com., transp.[a], serv. | | Agr., mi., man., constr., transp., serv. | |
| | Week | | Week | | Week | Hour | | Week | |
| | M.[1] | W. | M. | | M. W. | M. | W. | M. | W. |
| | Rates | | Earnings[2] | | Earnings[2] | Rates | | | |
| | s. d. | s. d. | £A. | | $ | s. d. | s. d. | Index | Index |
| 1937 | 87 6 | 47 10 | . | | . | 2 4.37 | 1 3.17 | 100 | 100 |
| 1938 | . | . | . | | . | 2 5.80 | 1 3.81 | 104 | 104 |
| 1939 | 94 8 | 52 2 | . | | 18.65 | 2 6.35 | 1 4.53 | 106 | 109 |
| 1940 | 96 10 | 53 6 | . | | 23.25 | 2 7.34 | 1 5.04 | 109 | 112 |
| 1941 | 102 4 | 57 1 | . | | 26.31 | 2 8.60 | 1 5.60 | 113 | 116 |
| 1942 | 110 11 | 61 6 | 6.11 | | 37.33 | 2 9.94 | 1 6.49 | 118 | 122 |
| 1943 | 118 4 | 66 9 | 6.61 | | 40.54 | 2 10.75 | 1 7.37 | 122 | 127 |
| 1944 | 119 2 | 71 8 | 6.62 | | 41.35 | 2 11.13 | 1 7.44 | 123 | 128 |
| 1945 | 119 11 | 72 8 | 6.56 | | 43.24 | 3 1.75 | 1 9.91 | 133 | 144 |
| 1946 | 123 0 | 76 5 | 6.51 | | 45.20 | 3 2.99 | 1 11.66 | 138 | 151 |
| 1947 | 133 2 | 83 5 | 7.10 | | 50.66 | 3 4.79 | 2 0.98 | 144 | 159 |
| 1948 | 149 4 | 94 8 | 8.12 | | 51.64 | 3 7.07 | 2 3.30 | 153 | 174 |
| 1949 | 164 6 | 105 5 | 8.94 | | ... | ... | ... | 162 | ... |
| 1949 : Sept. | 166 6 | 106 3 | 8.91 | | ... | . | . | 166 | ... |
| Dec. | 169 8 | 109 1 | 9.73 | | ... | . | . | 166 | ... |
| 1950 : Mar. | 172 10 | 110 9 | 9.16 | | ... | . | . | 166 | ... |
| June | ... | ... | 9.97 | | ... | . | . | 173 | ... |
| Sept. | ... | ... | 10.22 | | ... | . | . | ... | ... |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | . | . | . | | . | 228 (1948) | 41 | 228 | 41 |

[1] Including agriculture. [2] Monthly figures : averages for quarter ending in month indicated.

# Hours of Work

## STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF HOURS OF WORK PER WEEK

| Date | Africa | America | | | Asia | | Europe |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Egypt [1] | United States | Argentina [2] | Mexico [3] | Japan | | France |
| | Mi., man., constr., serv. | Mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv. | Man., constr., com., transp. | Mi., man., constr., transp. | Mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv., etc. | Mi., man., com., transp., etc. [4] | Mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv. |
| 1937 | . | . | 45.49 | . | . | . | 40.7 |
| 1938 | . | . | 45.49 | . | . | . | . |
| 1939 | . | . | 44.50 | 45.16 | . | . | . |
| 1940 | . | . | 45.25 | 43.60 | . | . | . |
| 1941 | . | . | 45.05 | 45.64 | . | . | . |
| 1942 | 55.0 | . | 45.05 | 45.79 | . | . | . |
| 1943 | 51.5 | 46.4 | 46.31 | 45.84 | . | . | . |
| 1944 | 50.5 | 46.2 | 46.34 | 45.32 | . | . | . |
| 1945 | 50.5 | 45.0 | 46.68 | 45.88 | . | . | . |
| 1946 | 51.0 | 43.0 | ... | 45.60 | . | . | 44.0 |
| 1947 | 51.5 | 42.3 | ... | 45.96 | 50.6 [5] | . | 45.0 |
| 1948 | 51.5 | 41.6 | ... | ... | 50.4 | 188.5 [6] | 45.0 |
| 1949 | 51.5 | 40.9 | ... | ... | 49.0 | . | 44.5 |
| 1949 : June | 52 | 39.2 | . | . | 50.8 | . | 44.6 |
| Sept. | . | 41.3 | . | . | 50.1 | . | 44.6 |
| Dec. | ... | ... | . | . | 50.0 | . | 44.6 |
| 1950 : Mar. | . | ... | . | . | 48.6 | 179.1 | 44.7 |
| June | ... | ... | . | . | 51.9 | 191.7 | ... |
| Sept. | . | ... | . | . | ... | 193 7 | ... |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | 115 (1948) | 49 436 (Oct. 1949) | . | 68 (1939) | . | . | . |

| Date | Europe *(concl.)* | | | Oceania | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Ireland [7] | Sweden [8] | United Kingdom [9] | Australia [10] | | New Zealand [11] | |
| | Mi., man., constr., transp., serv. | Mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv. | Mi.*, man., constr., transp.*, serv.* | Mi., man., constr., com., transp., serv. | | Mi., man., constr., com., transp., etc. | |
| | | | | M. | W. | M. | W. |
| 1937 | 43.9 | 46.9 | . | 45.06 | 44.59 | 41.10 | 41.39 |
| 1938 | 43.9 | 45.7 | 46.5 | 44.89 | 44.45 | 41.01 | 41.31 |
| 1939 | . | 45.2 | . | 44.56 | 44.38 | 40.99 | 41.31 |
| 1940 | . | 46.4 | . | 44.15 | 44.20 | 41.00 | 41.31 |
| 1941 | . | 46.9 | . | 43.88 | 44.03 | 41.01 | 41.31 |
| 1942 | . | 47.0 | . | 43.74 | 44.03 | 41.01 | 41.31 |
| 1943 | 43.5 | 47.1 | 50.0 | 43.63 | 44.03 | 41.01 | 41.31 |
| 1944 | 43.4 | 47.0 | 48.6 | 43.62 | 44.03 | 40.99 | 41.31 |
| 1945 | 44.5 | 47.2 | 47.4 | 43.60 | 44.03 | 40.87 | 41.22 |
| 1946 | 44.7 | 47.0 | 46.2 | 43.59 | 44.03 | 40.50 | 40.11 |
| 1947 | 44.6 | ... | 45.2 | 43.57 | 44.03 | 40.06 | 40.00 |
| 1948 | 44.6 | ... | 45.3 [12] | 39.96 | 40.00 | 39.98 | 40.00 |
| 1949 | ... | ... | 45.4 | 39.96 | 40.00 | ... | ... |
| 1949 : June | . | . | . | 39.96 | 40.00 | . | . |
| Sept. | . | . | 45.4 | 39.96 | 40.00 | . | . |
| Dec. | . | . | . | 39.96 | 40.00 | . | . |
| 1950 : Mar. | . | . | 45.6 | 39.96 | 40.00 | . | . |
| June | . | . | . | 39.96 | 40.00 | . | . |
| Sept. | . | . | ... | 39.96 | 40.00 | . | . |
| Persons cov. (thousands) | . | . | 6 000 (Oct. 1947) | . | . | . | . |

[1] Annual figures: average of Jan. and July, except 1942: July. [2] Buenos Aires. [3] Oct. of each year. [4] Per month. [5] Dec. [6] Oct. 1948. [7] One week in Oct. of each year. [8] Nov., except 1937: July; 1938 and 1939: averages of semi-annual figures; and 1946: May. [9] Manual workers. Annual figures: Oct. of each year, except 1943 to 1945: July. [10] Normal hours; June of each year. [11] Normal hours; March of each year. [12] Owing to changes in industrial classification, Oct. 1948 figures are not strictly comparable with those for earlier dates.

# BIBLIOGRAPHY

## I.L.O. Publications

**Documents of the International Labour Conference.**

*Thirty-second Session, Geneva, 1949. Record of Proceedings.* Geneva, 1951. L+881 pp. Paper: $7.50 ; 45s. ; cloth : $8.50 ; 51s.

**Documents of the Regional Conferences.**

Fourth Conference of American States Members of the International Labour Organisation, Montevideo, April-May 1949. *Record of Proceedings.* Geneva, 1951. xxiv+289 pp. $1.50 ; 9s.

Regional Conference for the Near and Middle East, Teheran, April 1951. Report I. *Manpower Problems : Vocational Training and Employment Service.* Geneva, 1951. 46 pp. 25 cents ; 1s. 6d.

This report on the first item on the agenda of the Conference is deliberately confined to aspects which are of immediate practical importance in relation to problems of economic development. After describing the present distribution of manpower in the countries of the Near and Middle East, it analyses the economic and social factors affecting the solution of the problems in question and the various measures that have been taken or proposed for dealing with them. The concluding chapter contains a list of points to facilitate discussion.

**Documents of the Industrial Committees.**

Building, Civil Engineering and Public Works Committee. *Record of the Second Session,* Rome, 1949. Geneva, 1951. iv+157 pp. $1 ; 6s.

— Third Session, Geneva, 1951. Report II. *Welfare in the Construction Industry.* Geneva, 1950. 89 pp. 25 cents ; 1s. 6d.

— — Report III. *Seasonal Unemployment in the Construction Industry.* Geneva, 1951. iv+97 pp. 50 cents ; 3s.

The subjects of the two reports for the third session of the Committee were placed on the agenda by the Governing Body of the Office in pursuance of resolutions adopted by the Committee at its second session. Each report concludes with a list of points intended to serve as a basis for discussion.

Report II briefly reviews the special problems which arise out of the temporary nature and the location of sites and out of the number of men employed, and then considers the possibilities of welfare development as regards transport to and from work, provision of protective clothing, shelter, sleeping accommodation, meals and canteens, washing and sanitary facilities, recreation and cultural activities, etc.

The information concerning the problem of seasonal unemployment in the construction industry during the post-war period contained in Report III is based

largely on the replies to a questionnaire addressed by the Office to Governments, which is reproduced in an appendix. The report is divided into two main parts. In the first the patterns and causes of this type of unemployment are broadly outlined and the potential benefits to workers, employers and the general public of its elimination described. The second surveys the possible remedies: special construction techniques, cost reduction as a stimulus to winter construction, regularisation of the private demand, creation of alternative employment opportunities and action by the employment service.

**Studies and Reports.**

New Series, No. 25. *Labour Problems in Turkey.* Report of a Mission of the International Labour Office (March-May 1949). Geneva, 1950. vi+282 pp. $1.75; 10s. 6d.

In September 1948, the Turkish Government requested the International Labour Office to study the organisation of the Turkish Ministry of Labour, which had then been in existence for three years, and the results it had obtained. In response to this request a mission was sent to Turkey in spring 1949, whose investigation covered the following points in particular: administrative problems, conditions of work and employment, social security, workers' protection against industrial accidents and occupational diseases, industrial relations, employment and vocational training. They are dealt with fully in this report, which has already been published in Turkish by the Turkish Ministry of Labour.

# Publications of the United Nations and Other Intergovernmental Organisations

**United Nations.**

DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMIC AFFAIRS. Economic Commission for Latin America. *The Economic Development of Latin America and its principal problems.* Publication No. 1950.II.G.2. Lake Success, New York, 1950. v+59 pp. 40 cents; 3s.

The countries of Latin America are no longer to be regarded merely as producers of raw materials. Their industrialisation forms the principal means by which they can share in the benefits of technical progress and gradually raise the standard of living of their peoples. The special problems such a process involves calls, however, for expert knowledge of the factual situation of the primary economies. It is the purpose of this booklet, prepared by Prof. Raúl Prebisch for the Economic Commission for Latin America, to present a basis for solving their problems of productivity, capital formation and the dollar shortage, the limits of industrialisation and an anti-cyclical policy.

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL AFFAIRS. *A Study of Statelessness.* Lake Success, New York, 1949. Publication No. 1949.XIV.2. xiii+190 pp. $1.25; 9s.

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL AFFAIRS, Population Division, and DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMIC AFFAIRS, Statistical Office of the United Nations. *Population Census Methods.* Population Studies, No. 4. Publication No. 1949.XIII.4. Lake Success, New York, 1949. xii+197 pp. $2; 15s.

A report, prepared in collaboration with the I.L.O. and the Food and Agriculture Organisation, which summarises and supersedes a series of studies on various demographic characteristics, as investigated in population censuses, which were issued under the title *Studies of Census Methods*, and supersedes also Chapters V to XV of the provisional edition of *Population Census Handbook*. It deals at length with methods used in the recent censuses of 53 countries and, conjointly,

with the recommendations of the United Nations Population Commission, the International Labour Office and other international organisations with respect to methods of defining, collecting, tabulating and presenting data on the principal characteristics of the population. The report should prove invaluable in planning population censuses so as to ensure greater usefulness and greater international comparability of the results and, in addition, in analysing, appraising and interpreting census data.

**International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.**

*The Basis of a Development Program for Colombia.* Report of a Mission headed by Lauchlin CURRIE and sponsored by the International Bank of Reconstruction and Development, in collaboration with the Government of Colombia. IBRD.1950.2. Washington, D.C., 1950. xxxviii+642 pp. $5.

This report embodies the results of nearly a year's work of investigation of the economic conditions and potentialities in Colombia. A first part describes and analyses the situation in the different sectors—factors accounting for the standard of living; national income and capital; agriculture, industry, power, land and air transport; welfare; public finance and money; international relations—and reaches the conclusion that the low standard of living is fortunately not due to a lack of resources, but to shortcomings in the organisation of their use. The second part accordingly aims at elucidating the means of bringing about an early improvement in the spheres of health and nutrition, housing, education and vocational training. " In other words ", it states, " the basic *objective* of our recommendations is to raise the standard of living, but to achieve this, our primary *emphasis* must be on those things that will most increase efficiency in production . . . it is not a question of stressing either agriculture or industry, but rather one of stressing production *per capita*, or efficiency, in all fields." The comprehensive development programme set forth in detail on the plan of the analysis in the first part is designed to bring about improvements in the abovementioned spheres within a period of five years.

A Spanish translation of the report has been published by the Colombian National Bank.

**World Health Organization.**

*Proposed Programme and Budget Estimates for the Financial Year 1 January-31 December 1951.* With the Proposed Programme and Budget Estimates for Technical Assistance for Economic Development of Under-developed Countries for the Second Period. Official Records of the World Health Organization, No. 23. Geneva, 1950. viii+290 pp. $1.50; 11s.

## Other Publications

**General.**

*Annual Report on the Colony of Trinidad and Tobago for the year 1948.* Port of Spain, Government Printer, 1950. 134 pp. $1.20.

CANADIAN INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS. *Canada in World Affairs: September 1941 to May 1944.* By C. Cecil LINGARD and Reginald G. TROTTER. Toronto, Oxford University Press, 1950. xii+320 pp. $3.

— *Canada in World Affairs: From Normandy to Paris, 1944-1946.* By F. H. SOWARD. London, Toronto, New York, Oxford University Press, 1950. xi+359 pp. $3.

SOHN, Louis B. (editor). *Cases and Other Materials on World Law.* The Interpretation and Application of the Charter of the United Nations and of the Constitutions of Other Agencies of the World Community. University Casebook Series. Brooklyn, The Foundation Press, Inc., 1950. xxii+1368 pp. $8.

**Social and Economic Questions.**

ANGLO-AMERICAN COUNCIL ON PRODUCTIVITY. *Simplification in British Industry.* Report of an inquiry in Britain by the Group, appointed by the Council, which made an investigation of simplification in the United States of America. Productivity Report. London, New York, 1949. 13 pp. 1s.

ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN RAILROADS. *The Railroad Situation, 1950.* By J. H. PARMELEE. Statement No. 2 on Transportation Conditions and National Transportation Policy, submitted on behalf of the railroad industry at hearings before the Subcommittee on Domestic Land and Water Transportation of the Senate Interstate and Foreign Commerce Committee, held pursuant to Senate Resolution 50, 81st Congress. Washington, D.C., 1950. 72 pp.

BRAY, F. Sewell. *Social Accounts and the Business Enterprise Sector of the National Economy.* University of Cambridge, Department of Applied Economics, Monograph 2. Cambridge University Press, 1949. viii+100 pp. 10s. 6d.

The purpose of this monograph is to adapt and reset social accounts prepared for the study of national income into a form which will be readily and easily assimilated by both accountants and economists. The author is a rare example of the professional accountant applying his knowledge of business accounting, designed to safeguard the interests of proprietors, to the new science of social accounting, designed equally to safeguard the interests of society as a whole. This important work has been carried out in close association with Mr. Richard Stone, whose basic work in the field of social accounting is the starting point of the author's analysis.

BRESCIANI-TURRONI, C. *Economic Policy for the Thinking Man.* Translated by Edward FITZGERALD from the revised German edition *(Einführung in die Wirtschaftspolitik)* of the original Italian entitled *Introduzione alla Politica Economica.* Introduction by Luigi EINAUDI. London, Edinburgh, Glasgow, William Hodge and Company Limited, 1950. ix+304 pp.

This " introduction to political economy ", addressed to the educated reader by an eminent Italian authority on credit and banking questions, develops ideas on the economic function of the State which he had previously broached in a number of articles and shorter studies. After a factual survey and a pragmatic assessment of the various forms of State intervention, he reaches the conclusion that this is normally inferior to a liberal economic order. " The economist can advance numerous reasons, both theoretical and practical, for believing that only in a market economy dominated by free competition can the economic resources of a country yield their maximum results." The State should confine its intervention to the prevention of abuses and the creation of the framework within which a maximum of opportunity and reasonable freedom will be secured to all.

CHANDRASEKHAR, S. *India's Population : Fact and Policy.* Introduction by Warren S. THOMPSON. Revised edition. Chidambaram, India, Annamalai University, Indian Institute for Population Studies, 1950. 170 pp. 7 rupees.

In this revised edition of a work originally published in 1946 the latest available statistics are incorporated and the new problems which emerged from the developments in the sub-continent since 1946 are also considered. In Parts I and II, the data are used to bring out the main demographic and public health features of a grim picture of a pitifully low level of living. Part III contains the author's proposals in broad outline for a population policy.

DELEGATIONEN FÖR DET INTERNATIONELLA SOCIALPOLITISKA SAMARBETET — DELEGATION FOR INTERNATIONAL COLLABORATION IN SOCIAL QUESTIONS. *Internationella arbetsorganisationen, XXIV — International Labour Organisa-*

*tion, XXIV.* Arbetskonferensens trettioandra sammanträde m.m. (1949). Stockholm, Kungl. boktryckeriet, P. A. Norstedt & söner, 1950. vi+135 pp.

In accordance with its usual plan, this yearbook gives an account of the activities of the I.L.O. in 1949 (32nd Session of the Conference, sessions of the Governing Body, special conferences, meetings of industrial committees, etc.), and of the measures taken in Sweden connected with the work of the I.L.O., together with the texts of the Conventions, Recommendations and resolutions adopted by the Conference at its 32nd Session.

JUNTA NACIONAL DE ECONOMÍA, Cuba. *Economía de Post-Guerra y Desempleo.* By Julián ALIENES UROSA. Estudios e investigaciones económicas, No. 3, Havana, 1949. viii+177 pp.

A study written in 1946, when it appeared that the prosperity and economic development enjoyed by Cuba during the war would be followed by a temporary depression. The low standard of living and substantial unemployment are ascribed to deficiencies in national production, in analysing which the author draws attention to the need for "structural transformation" and for a policy designed to solve the three main groups of problems of the Cuban economy: establishment of full employment; strengthening of the country's international position; and financing and development of a complementary "reserve" economy.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS, European Affairs Division. *Political Science and Economics in Western Germany.* A Postwar Survey. By Ernst Wilhelm MEYER. Washington, D.C., 1950. 23 pp.

A survey of the main periodicals, organisations and research institutes in the field of political science and economics in post-war Western Germany.

MINISTRY OF FINANCE, Finland. Economic Department. *Economic Survey of Finland, August 1950.* Economic Supplement to the Government's Draft submitted to the Diet for the 1951 State Budget. Helsinki, 1950. 42 pp.

This survey covers economic developments in Finland from 1947 to 1950 and analyses certain trends and factors expected to affect future economic development. It begins with a review of the development and changing composition of the national income since 1947, taking 1938 as a base year for comparisons, and then gives a detailed analysis, sector by sector, of economic development in 1950. This is followed by a discussion of the economic and political trends and factors which are expected to affect future economic development. Attention is drawn to the need of putting a stop to the rise in domestic prices and costs and of establishing an equilibrium between prices and wages, which is considered to be the central problem of Finnish short-term economic policy.

The survey ends with an interesting study of the development of the public sector of the economy and an attempt to forecast the long-term prospects on the basis of the fact that about 80 per cent. of State expenditure is based on laws, regulations and agreements which facilitate more accurate forecasting than is possible in the case of other expenditure.

NEUMAN, A. M. de. *Consumers' Representation in the Public Sector of Industry.* Cambridge, Students' Bookshops, Ltd., 1950. 22 pp.

The author's conclusion from his brief critique is that "one is tempted to ask whether the interests of the consumers, as well as of the suppliers, might not be better served if there were more competition and less politics within each nationalised industry, together with a real decentralisation of powers".

PEN, J. *De Loonvorming in de moderne Volkshuishouding.* Theorie der collectieve Loononderhandelingen. Capita Selecta der Economie, X. Leiden, H. E. Stenfert Kroese's Uitgevers-maatschappij N. V., 1950. xi+322 pp.

The author treats collective wage-bargaining as a problem of price determination under conditions of bilateral monopoly. He devotes a large part of his book to clarifying and developing this more general problem on the grounds that theoretical treatment of the bilateral monopoly case has been rather unsatisfactory so far. Starting from Zeuthen's theory of bilateral monopoly—which includes the risk factor of the bargaining process—and introducing a risk evaluation function

(connected with the parties' "propensity to fight"), the risk being that of the termination of bargaining by a conflict, he then develops his own theory of wage determination, or rather his theory for any bilateral bargaining process with special reference to the factors which enter the formal model if applied to wage bargaining. In the last chapter the theory is applied to some characteristic "bargaining constellations", consisting of various combinations of the "size" of the bargaining parties and the degree of unemployment.

RUNCO GONZÁLEZ, Alejandro. *Chile y Perú a través de su producción económica.* Memoria de prueba para optar al grado de licenciado en la Facultad de Ciencias Jurídicas y Sociales de la Universidad de Chile. Santiago, Editorial Jurídica de Chile, 1950. Pp. 159-287.

A useful compilation of numerous data on the national economies of Chile and Peru and of the commercial relations between the two countries. Its three parts deal with the economic production of Peru (agriculture, mining, manufacturing), that of Chile (mining and metallurgy, agriculture, national industries) and the trade between the two (commercial treaties, means of communication, balance of trade).

SCHMIDT, Heinz. *Cartels and Trusts.* Their origin, development and present-day significance. An economic study. Translated by Fay CASTLES. Copenhagen, International Union of Food and Drink Workers' Associations, 1950. 138 pp.

The author attacks widespread industrial combination (he quotes a statement according to which there must have been more than 10,000 cartels in Europe alone before the war) on the general grounds that it eliminates the regulating function of the price mechanism. After discussing various forms of combines and State cartel policy in different countries, he turns to some problems of industrial concentration and the trade union movement. He believes that combination among employers necessitated concentration in the workers' organisations, with resultant serious difficulties for trade union development.

Though in some cases workers are not averse to cartels and trusts, since they hope that high and stable prices will improve working conditions, the author thinks that on balance cartels render the work of the unions difficult.

SOCIÉTÉ NATIONALE DES CHEMINS DE FER FRANCAIS. *Où en est le chemin de fer.* S.N.C.F. 1950, No. 52. Paris, 1950. 63 pp.+appendices I-XIX.

*Viability and Full Employment.* A Contribution to the Task of Economic Reconstruction of Western Germany. Bonn, 1950. 48 pp.

This condensed statement of the basic necessities for the economic reconstruction of Western Germany, of the problems in the way of reattaining its economic viability independent of foreign aid, and of some possible means of solving these problems, has been prepared by the Institute on World Economics of Kiel University. It finds that the main problem of Western Germany today is mass unemployment; large-scale foreign investment, far in excess of the proposed Marshall Plan aid, would be required to enable the German economy to absorb this surplus manpower, with the necessary controls to check inflationary tendencies and price and wage rises. The method suggested for financing such foreign investment is a three-way trade between the United States, Western Germany and the countries coming under President Truman's Point Four Programme of aid to underdeveloped countries, with credit and investment bonds operating through the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Considerable attention is paid to particular production and consumption needs and the needs of industry generally, and the question is discussed whether liberal or bilateral trading can best bring about Western Germany's integration into the European economy.

**Statistics.**

SAGOROFF, S. *Wirtschaftsstatistik.* Theorie der Interpretation. Vol. I. Quantitative Erforschung des gesamten wirtschaftlichen Prozesses. Berne, A. Francke A.-G. Verlag, 1950. 176 pp.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE, United States. Bureau of the Census. *Census of Manufactures : 1947.* Vol. I. *General Summary.* Detailed Comparative Statistics for Industries and Geographic Areas on Selected Subjects. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1950. xi+855 pp. $2.75.

— Vol. II. *Statistics by Industry.* General and Product Statistics for Each of the 453 Industries ; Materials Consumed and Metalworking Operations Data for Selected Industries. Comprising, with some revisions, the series individually published as " Industry Pamphlets ". Washington, Government Printing Office, 1949. xii+948 pp. $4.75.

— — *Product Supplement.* Quantity and Value of Shipments and/or Production for More Than 6,000 Products Manufactured by United States Industry. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1950. vii+212 pp. $2.25.

**Industrial Relations.**

ARBEITERKAMMER IN WIEN. *Jahrbuch, 1948.* Vienna, Verlag der Arbeiterkammer in Wien, 1950. 492 pp.

BLOOM, Gordon F., and NORTHRUP, Herbert R. *Economics of Labor and Industrial Relations.* Philadelphia, The Blakiston Company, 1950. x+749 pp. $5.

CONFÉDÉRATION GÉNÉRALE DU TRAVAIL FORCE OUVRIÈRE. 2e Congrès Confédéral de la C.G.T.-Force Ouvrière, XXXIVe Congrès National Corporatif, Paris, 25, 26, 27 et 28 octobre 1950. *Rapports confédéraux.* Paris, 1950. 126 pp.

INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF INDUSTRIAL ORGANISATIONS AND GENERAL WORKERS' UNIONS. *Reports to the affiliated organisations. (a)* The International Chemical Workers' Conference, held in Geneva on 9 and 10 April 1950 ; *(b)* the Second Session of the Chemical Industries Committee of the International Labour Office, held in Geneva from 11 to 21 April 1950 ; *(c)* a note on the conclusions to be drawn in the light of the experience gained at these two meetings. Amsterdam, 1950. 52 pp.

INTERNATIONALER BUND DER BAU- UND HOLZARBEITER. *Protokoll der Zweiten Internationalen Konferenz für Holzindustrie, Stockholm, 3.-6. Mai 1950.* Amsterdam, 1950. 115 pp.

KELLERHALS, Werner. *Arbeiterkommissionen : ihre Entwicklung und Bedeutung, unter besonderer Berücksichtigung der schweizerischen Verhältnisse.* Inaugural-Dissertation zur Erlangung der Würde eines Doktors der Staatswissenschaften der Philosophisch-Historischen Fakultät der Universität Basel. Basle, Buchdruckerei Haupt, 1949. 75 pp.

MADISON, Charles A. *American Labor Leaders.* Personalities and Forces in the Labor Movement. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1950. ix+474 pp. $4.

MERTENS, Cornelis. *Kijkjes in de vakbeweging.* Brussels, Samenwerkende Drukkerij Lucifer, 1950. 77 pp.

The author, retired general secretary of the Belgian Federation of Labour and former prominent member of the Governing Body of the I.L.O., describes in these " glimpses of the trade union movement " the early struggles of the trade unions, particularly in Belgium, and their slow rise to assertion and influence in the community. The booklet is vividly written and is addressed mainly to young workers.

UNION SYNDICALE SUISSE. *Conférence mondiale et premier congrès de la Confédération internationale des syndicats libres (CISL).* Rapport au Comité de l'Union syndicale suisse. Berne, 1950. 59 pp.

Also published in German.

**Manpower.**

CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION, United States. *Occupations in the Federal Civil Service.* A Guide to the Principal Categories of Jobs filled through the Competitive System. Pamphlet No. 3. Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, 1949. 59 pp. 25 cents.

A guide to the employment opportunities in the United States federal civil service, telling how the jobs are filled, and describing in particular the competitive examinations which are of interest to college students and recent graduates. Part III, the main section of the pamphlet, discusses the various occupational fields—scientific, agricultural, technical, professional, administrative, social, clerical and manual—which from time to time offer employment opportunities in the service.

FRASER, John Munro. *A Handbook of Employment Interviewing.* London, Macdonald & Evans, 1950. 202 pp. 8s. 6d.

The theory and instruction contained in this handbook are based on the experiences of the author in training employment interviewers and on his own actual practice of the methods taught. The advantages of right job placing of all workers, the less able as well as the able, both to production and to the individual are discussed and illustrated. The possibilities of right placing are suggested in the methods of selection which the author describes in the course of several chapters, covering techniques in the collection of facts about the qualities of the individual and measuring these, the collection of facts about the job and job specification, and finally " putting the pattern together ". These methods are demonstrated, point by point, in relation to case interviews. The contents of the handbook are organised to provide quick reference to the salient principles and methods in interviewing work, and there is a comprehensive index.

**Vocational Training.**

NEUBERGER, Maria. *Technische und gewerbliche Lehranstalten.* I. Für die Berufsgruppen : Baugewerbe, Steine und Erden bearbeitende Gewerbe, Holzarbeitende Gewerbe, Nahrungs- und Genussmittelgewerbe, Gaststättengewerbe, Textilindustrie, Bekleidungsgewerbe, Graphische Gewerbe. Schule und Beruf, Nos. 8-12. Vienna, Österreichischer Bundesverlag, 1949. 65 pp.

Presents the curricula and conditions of admission of the technical and vocational schools catering for the occupational groups in Austria listed in the subtitle. Similar pamphlets for additional groups are in preparation.

VOCATIONAL ADVISORY SERVICE. *Where to Find Vocational Training in New York City.* A Directory. New York, 1950. xxxi+124 pp.

A successor to the *Directory of Opportunities for Vocational Training in New York City* first published in 1909 and the 13th edition of which appeared in 1946, the present volume was compiled by the counsellors of the Consultation Service, an organisation jointly sponsored by the Vocational Advisory Service (a voluntary organisation formerly entitled the Vocational Service for Juniors) and the New York State Employment Service. It is divided into four sections : the first lists in alphabetical order the types of training available, rather than the specific jobs to which each may lead ; the second, schools and courses offering specific vocational training for handicapped persons ; the third, the public day high-schools which teach commercial or vocational as well as general subjects as part of a 3- or 4-year programme ; and the fourth, the New York State agricultural and technical institutes and institutes of applied arts and sciences. The information given for each school relates to the conditions of admission, the length, date and time of the course, the fees, if any, and any degrees, certificates or scholarships awarded.

A useful alphabetical index of the subjects covered in each section, with cross references, makes the book easy to use.

**Conditions of Work.**

CHAMBERLAIN, Neil W. *Management in Motion.* The Corporate Decision-Making Processes Applied to the Transfer of Employees. New Haven, Connecticut, Yale University, Labor and Management Center, 1950. vi+124 pp.

A case study of the issues arising in the transfer of employees within a single company (the Southern New England Telephone Company) which is to form part of a long-term enquiry into total human relations in industry. The report points out that this aspect of employee movements has been in the past subordinated to that of labour turnover, *i.e.*, movements from a firm rather than from a job, and that in fact both aspects are closely related and important to management. It traces the development, within the company, of recognition of the desirability of transferring an employee in certain circumstances and of the right of an employee to be transferred to a vacancy, the development of the company's policy, and the role of the workers' union in these developments. Details are given of the methods by which the approved transfer system has been administered and the effect upon the personal welfare of the employees. The report concludes with a discussion of the elements of company decision-making as revealed by this experience.

SPID. *Mémento des congés payés.* By Guy BOUTIER. Collection "Les mémentos". Paris, 1950. 135 pp. 240 francs.

VÁSQUEZ PÉREZ, Raúl. *Situación económico-social del personal ferroviario.* Memoria de prueba para optar al grado de licenciado en la Facultad de Ciencias Jurídicas y Sociales de la Universidad de Chile. Santiago, Editorial Jurídica de Chile, 1950. Pp. 417-484.

**Social Security; Public Health.**

DALL, Karl. *Die Angestelltenversicherung.* Schriftenreihe des Österreichischen Gewerkschaftsbundes, No. 18. Vienna, Verlag des Österreichischen Gewerkschaftsbundes, 1950. 127 pp.

This handy summary of the provisions concerning old-age, invalidity and survivors' insurance of non-manual employees under the Austrian social security system gives a succinct account of the scope of protection, contributions, qualifying conditions and definition of contingencies, benefits and their calculation, maintenance of rights where an employee ceases to be covered by the pension scheme for non-manual employees but becomes insured under the manual workers' or miners' scheme or vice versa, organisation, and settlement of disputes.

DEJARDIN, Jérôme. *L'assurance maladie-invalidité.* Verviers, Editions "Le Travail", 1950. xiv+263 pp.+charts 1-10.

A detailed analysis of the legislation concerning sickness and invalidity insurance in Belgium. It deals with the provisions concerning scope, conditions for benefit, benefits in cash and kind, supervision and settlement of disputes of the scheme which was introduced in 1945 as part of a general social security system.

GUTIÉRREZ VARAS, Raúl. *La caja bancaria de pensiones.* Memoria de prueba para optar al grado de licenciado en la Facultad de Ciencias Jurídicas y Sociales de la Universidad de Chile. Santiago, Editorial Jurídica de Chile, 1950. Pp. 159-203.

MINISTRY OF SOCIAL AFFAIRS, Egypt. *The Egyptian Social Security Scheme.* Cairo, Government Press, 1950. 52 pp.

SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS, Japan. General Headquarters, Public Health and Welfare Section. *Public Health and Welfare in Japan.* Annual Summary—1949. Two volumes (Vol. II in two parts). Vol. I: viii+145 pp.; Vol. II, Part One: xii+51 pp.+charts 1-28+tables 1-70; Part Two: tables 71-113.

Vol. I summarises the activities during 1949 and the future programmes of the Section to improve the public health and welfare services in Japan. Vol. II gives vital, morbidity and infant mortality statistics for the year 1949, with detailed breakdown by month and district; information on other related topics, such as hospital facilities available, dietary surveys, etc., is also provided. The main points are brought out with the help of charts.

SCHALLER, François. *De la charité privée aux droits économiques et sociaux du citoyen.* Un aspect du nouveau courant social. Preface by Thierry MAULNIER. Collection de la Nouvelle Ecole de Lausanne. Neuchâtel, Editions de la Baconnière, 1950. xii+246 pp. 10 francs.

**Living Conditions.**

BETTELHEIM, Charles, and FRÈRE, Suzanne. *Une ville française moyenne — Auxerre en 1950.* Etude de structure sociale et urbaine. Preface by Lucien FEBVRE. Enquête effectuée par le Centre d'Etudes Sociologiques et publiée avec le concours du Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique. Cahiers de la Fondation Nationale des Sciences Politiques, No. 17. Paris, Librairie Armand Colin, 1950. xiv+270 pp.

DEPASSE, Charles. *Philosophie de l'Education populaire.* Preface by Louis VERNIERS. Loisirs et Culture, Manuel de l'éducation populaire, Vol. I. 2nd edition. Liège, Editions Biblio (U.C.), 1949. v+246 pp.

PETRILL, Jack. *After the Whistle Blows.* A guide to the field of recreation in industry. New York, The William-Frederick Press, for the Industrial Recreation Bureau, 1949. 351 pp. $10.

**Co-operation.**

HOUGH, Eleanor M. *The Co-operative Movement in India.* Its Relation to a Sound National Economy. Second revised and enlarged edition for India and Pakistan. Calcutta, Geoffrey Cumberlege, Oxford University Press, 1950. xxi+402 pp.

First published in 1932, this revised edition incorporates subsequent developments in the progress of the co-operative movement in what is now India and Pakistan. Its special interest lies in the fact that the growth of the movement is described in the general perspective of the economy of the subcontinent.

TAY BOH, Lim. *The Co-operative Movement in Malaya.* Malayan Questions: A Series of Reviews Written from within. Cambridge University Press, 1950. 37 pp. 1s. 6d.

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